A HISTORY OF FOREIGN WORDS IN ENGLISH

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PREFACE

The first thing that is wrong in this book is the title. Very many of the words dealt with are certainly not now 'foreign', but have been completely naturalized in English for centuries. But since they are in origin not of the common Germanic stock, the phrase 'foreign words' may stand, and will perhaps be preferred by some to the technical term 'loan-words'.

In a volume which has to cover so long a period as that of the whole history of the English language, the treatment must necessarily be incomplete. Perhaps the time has not yet come for a really comprehensive work—it would need several volumes—on loan-words in English. A great deal of spade-work on individual languages and problems remains to be done. The great Period Dictionaries now being prepared in America, to the publication of which we are looking forward, will be of the utmost value in supplementing the material afforded by the Oxford English Dictionary; and more material may be found in still unpublished records and accounts of early travellers and traders.

The present volume does not limit its attention to foreign words existing in English at the present day. This would give a wrong impression of earlier periods. It does not, however, attempt to trace the history of loan-words in all the local dialects of English at all periods; this requires separate study. Emphasis has been laid throughout on the *first* introductions from individual languages and the *first* appearances of individual words. The greatest amount of space has been devoted to early loans from Latin, French, and Scandinavian, since these languages are the most important sources of our adoptions. Examples of the words in actual use (i.e. quotations from contemporary writers) are given freely, especially in the earlier periods.

In the sections on Old English, all the most important literary texts, glossaries, and other documents have been examined. For Middle English only a comparatively small number of what it is hoped are really representative texts are discussed; these are of various types and from various areas. This seemed the best method of dealing with the masses of material available. In considering words from Middle English texts it is, of course, safest to take the words as belonging to the time of the manuscript used, and not necessarily to that of the original document, if the former is a copy. There is obviously always the possibility of changes and additions in copying.

Probably no two people would agree entirely as to what words should be admitted to such a volume as this, especially when the words in question come from the more remote languages such as Chinese, Maori, and so on. Words which are quite familiar to people who live or have travelled in the East, in Australasia, in South America, may be quite unknown and of small interest to those who are familiar only with other parts of the world. My choice of words to be discussed in the sections on the modern period may seem arbitrary, but I have tried to include those which the ordinary English reader is most likely to come across in not too specialized literature.

The appendices on the phonology of Latin, French, and Scandinavian words give, as will be seen, only the main features, and these very briefly; they are merely intended for reference.

Discussion of controversial matters has been avoided, but references will in some cases be found in footnotes to books or articles dealing with individual points.

The Bibliography gives only the most important of the works which have been consulted. I am most deeply indebted to the Dictionaries mentioned in this list, and in particular to the Oxford English Dictionary and the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, without whose help this book could certainly not have been written.

I have to thank my colleague, Dr. E. C. Martin (Reader in Imperial History, University of London), for advice and help in historical matters, and for her patience in answering questions. I should also like to thank my family for much practical assistance, and several generations of students who have helped by asking questions.

M. S. S.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AN.,	Anglo-Norman	M.L.G	Middle Low German
Amer.	American	Mal.,	Malav
Arab.,	Arabic	Med.Lat.	Mediaeval Latin
Austr	Australian	Mex.	Mexican
Braz.,	Brazilian	Mod.E.	Modern English
C.Fr	Central French	Mod.Gk.	Modern Greek
Carıb.,	Caribbean	Mod.Lat.,	Modern Latin
Ch.,	Chinese	N.F.	Norman-French
Corn	Cornish	O.Du.	Old Dutch
Dan.,	Danish	O.E.,	Old English
Du.	Dutch	O.Fr.,	Old French
E.E.T.S.	Early English Text	O.H.G.	Old High German
	Society	O.Ir.,	Old Irish
E.Mod.Du	Early Modern Dutch	O.N.,	Old Norse
E.Span.,	Early Spanish	O.S.,	Old Saxon
Eng.,	English	O. Span.,	Old Spanish
Flem.,	Flemish	O.W.,	Old Welsh
Fr.,	French	Pers.,	Persian
Gael	Gaelic	Peruv.,	Peruvian
Germ.,	German	Port.,	Portuguese
Gk.,	Greek	Pr.O.N.,	Primitive Old Norse
Gmc.,	Germanic	Prov.,	Provençal
Goth.,	Gothic	Rom.,	Romance
Hait.	Haitian	Russ.,	Russian
Heb.,	Hebrew	S.Amer.,	South American
Hind.,	Hındustani	Scand.,	Scandmavian
Hung.,	Hungarian	Scrt.,	Sanscrit
Ir.,	Irish	Singhal.,	Singhalese
Ital.,	Italian	Slav	Slavonic
Jap.,	Japanese	Span.,	Spanish
Jav.,	Javanese	Swed	Swedish
L.G.,	Low Gorman	Turk.,	Turkish
Lat	Latin		
M.Ďu.,	Middle Dutch	Vulg.Lat.,	Vulgar Latin
M.E.,	Middle English	W.,	Welsh
M.Flem.,	Middle Flemish	W.Afr.,	West African
M.H.G.	Middle High German	W.Flem.,	West Flemish
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

The English language has throughout its history accepted with comparative equanimity words from other languages with which it has been in contact, and though there have been periods during which speakers and writers of English have made use of foreign words to an exaggerated extent, it is probable that most people will agree that the foreign element in normal English usage has been of value.

Some languages avoid as far as possible the use of alien terms, substituting for them, when an expression for a new object or idea is needed, new words made up of native elements, but England has always welcomed the alien, and many hundreds of words of non-English origin are now part and parcel of our vocabulary, indistinguishable from the native stock except to those with some knowledge of etymology. The language of this country has, it is true, been particularly open to foreign influence, partly through the succession of invaders who came into contact with English speakers during the Middle Ages; partly through the enterprise of the English themselves, who have carried their language into the far corners of the world, where it has gathered, like a snowball, new matter as it passed on its way. There are few nations and few languages which have had as many opportunities as the English for acquiring new words by the direct influence of other tongues.

The adoption of foreign words in any dialect may come about in different ways, and the extent to which foreign elements become naturalized varies very considerably. Contact between peoples of alien speech may be of several kinds; they may meet for instance through conquest, through colonization, through trade, or through literature. When one nation subdues another which speaks a different language, the conquerors, if their object has been political power rather than settlement, may constitute an authority, or ruling class, which is in point of view of numbers

much in the minority compared with the whole body of the conquered people. In a case like this, it is usually the native language that survives, though the incoming dialect will very probably transfer to the native vocabulary words which express its own methods of government, and other cultural words. This has happened in several instances in Western Europe in the early Middle Ages: the Franks in Latin-speaking Gaul, the Normans in France, the Norman-French in England. In each of these some members of the ruling classes as well as of the subject-classes must have been bilingual, and each in speaking his own language would be liable to introduce into it words, especially of a technical or specialized character, that he has learnt from the other.

This is what takes place when the conquerors who form a governing minority have established themselves in their new country as a separate unity, and have retained little or no connexion with their original home and the speakers of their own language, or have become politically independent. however, the conquered country or province does not become an independent state under its new rulers, but is controlled by the original government, so that the ruling class is in constant contact with, and continually reinforced by, people speaking their own language, it has usually happened that the dialect of the rulers has won the day, and has spread throughout the community, absorbing some words from the native speakers, chiefly such as concern local products, natural features, etc., but without necessarily undergoing radical changes in itself. An example of this is afforded by the relative positions of the Romans and Celts in Gaul, where the Latin speech established itself after acquiring a very small proportion of words from the native Gaulish dialect.

A different set of circumstances arises when the invasion is for the purpose of settlement or colonization rather than merely for the sake of political power. If the newcomers arrive in such numbers as to form a majority over the native speakers, and in such military or political strength as to acquire complete control over these, or dispossess them, the dialect of the conquerors or colonists will have the upper hand from the start, wherever they establish themselves. They will, however, adopt from the natives whom they displace words which denote native products, etc.,

and occasionally native customs, which may have been unfamiliar before. This happened, for instance, when the Anglo-Saxons came to England, eventually in numbers large enough to render the Britons a minority of little importance, or in some areas perhaps to oust them altogether. It has happened again in many areas of European colonization (e.g. the English in Australia), where the language of the newcomers has never shown any likelihood of yielding to the native idiom.

Sometimes warfare aiming at conquest results in a type of immigration, rather than colonization, as in the case of the Scandinavians in this country, where conflict led finally to more or less peaceful settlement, where the invaders established themselves side by side with the natives without overwhelming them or driving them out, and where the race, customs, and even the language, of the two peoples were sufficiently alike to make intercourse between the two, and the subsequent bilingualism, easy and natural. Here the Englishman who acquired Scandinavian (and no doubt also the Scandinavian who learnt English) introduced the new terms into his own language, where they remained even after English had established itself in all the areas of the Nordic settlement, and Englishmen and Danes alike had ceased to be bilingual.

Of course, immigration is not always preceded or accompanied by hostility, and immigrants into a colony with an already constituted authority will usually adopt the general speech of the colony even if their own is an alien one. If the immigrants come in a large enough body to form a small community of their own within the greater one, they are likely to retain their own speech, for a time at least, even though eventually yielding to the pressure of the language spoken all about them. There are many instances of this in the communities of different nationality which have settled in the United States—Jewish, German, Norwegian, etc.—and now are gradually giving up their own dialects, though carrying into their newly acquired English some part of their own vocabulary, some words from which may spread to more distant fields.

For English speakers, trade has always been an important factor in the introduction of new words and of new ideas. Even before English had separated from its Germanic stock it was

trade almost as much as conquest which brought into it its first words from other languages, as will be seen in the following chapter, in which the influence of Latin on the Germanic vocabulary will be dealt with. It was trade that in later times brought us acquainted with the words of many another nation in the New World as well as in the old. In this respect trade and scientific exploration go hand in hand, and can hardly be separated; and the merchant-adventurer holds an important place in the history of the English language.

So far we have considered words borrowed in actual speech. Sometimes, however, loan-words will come into a language from a written source; in this case they usually pass first into the written language, and thence may or may not pass into the spoken language. Examples of this may be found in plenty in the borrowings from Latin in the later Old English period, when English writers and translators took over, from Latin originals or models, Latin words to serve their purpose, sometimes retaining their original inflexions, sometimes using the appropriate English inflexion. Perhaps the majority of these words remain in the category of what may be called "learned" words, and never reach full currency with the average speaker, if indeed they reach the spoken language at all. We may instance the Old English aspide 'asp', sanct 'saint', lenticul 'lentil', protomartyr, milite 'soldiery', polente, grammatic, circul 'circle', ansiteatra, termen 'fixed' point', as various types of learned words; and as words which, introduced first from literature, became more or less 'popular', cleric 'clerk, priest', offrian 'to sacrifice', apostel, non 'noon', cucumere 'cucumber', turtur 'turtledove'. In more modern times it is science rather than literature that has been responsible for the introduction of words of a learned type, and English dictionaries, of a general character as well as purely scientific, contain hundreds of words formed directly from Greek or Latin elements, which are never used by the ordinary speaker and may never be seen or heard by him. Here again, some of these words of scientific origin do pass into popular speech, as has obviously happened in such cases as telephone, telegram, telegraph, gramophone, and medical terms such as appendicitis, bronchitis, which are used by the layman as well as by the specialist.

It happens frequently in the course of the history of our language that a word is borrowed more than once from the same source (or from developments of this source), perhaps once as a popular word and again as a learned or technical one. The Latin word uncia was adopted by Germanic (on the continent) as a measure of length, and appears in Old English as ynce, Modern English inch; a few centuries later, English borrowed the word again, this time in its Romance form, *untsia, which becomes in Old English yntse (now obsolete), used as a measure of weight; the French descendant, unce, once, of Romance *untsia, came into Middle English, again as a measure of weight, and has become Modern English ounce; all these were popular loans; but the final version, uncial, borrowed in the seventeenth century from Latin unciālis, the adjective of uncia, is definitely a learned loan.

English has a particularly large number of these 'repeated' loans (in some of which each of the pair or group is of a quite ordinary popular type), owing to the fact of her numerous borrowings from Latin in the Early Middle Ages followed by even more plentiful adoptions from French, which developed from Latin, and further by the continued contact between English and French which has led to many more introductions from French in recent times, by the English habit (renewed in the Renaissance period) of adopting words from Latin, and finally by the fact that even within the Middle English period a word may be borrowed twice over, from different dialects of French. Not very many original Latin words appear in all these five forms in Modern English, since a new loan has often ousted an earlier one, but a large number may be found in two or three of these groups; cf. catch, chase, capt(ive) etc.; mint, money; wine, vine(yard); drake, dragon; master, magistr(ate); trivet, tripod; castle, château; corpse, corps; and so on.

Some words have entered English, not by direct contact with the language which is their source, but indirectly, through an intervening language. In this way many of the earlier Italian loans came to us through French, the Italian of the Renaissance having reached France first, and thence having passed on to us. In this way, too, the earliest loan-words from the east have come to us through Latin, many of them having already passed through

Greek before reaching Latin. Even in the early centuries of this era, before communication became as simple and rapid as it is to-day, words travelled thousands of miles, westwards from Asia to Europe, across Europe from east to west and from south to north, all round the shores of the Mediterranean, from nation to nation and from generation to generation. Most of these much-travelled words are objects of trade or culture. The word pepper, for instance, came first from some eastern language into Greek, thence into Latin and thence into English; elephant was first Egyptian, then Greek, Latin, French, and finally English; camel was originally Semitic, and this too passed through Greek and Latin before reaching our language. Albatross is based ultimately on a Phœnician word which drifted successively into Greek, Arabic, and Portuguese, and then into English. Apricot began a long history in Latin, from which it passed in succession to Greek, Arabic, Spanish, French, and English. Silk has been Chinese, Greek, Latin, and finally English. Carat comes through Greek, Arabic, Italian, and French.

In recent times, English has partially adopted from distant countries many words which are used chiefly or exclusively in connexion with the countries from which they come, by people who themselves know these countries, or in books describing them, either of necessity (for lack of equivalent English terms), or for the sake of local colour. The book about South America will have its gauchos, lariats, vaqueros, ponchos, cordilleras, and llanos; the Malayan its amboynas, copra, ihlang-ihlang, mangosteens, krises, parangs, and sarongs; to the Anglo-Indian, his chota hazris, tiffins, chits, baksheesh, dhobis, punkahs, are as much a part of his everyday life as his chutneys and curries.

When used by English speakers, such words practically always adopt English inflexions. It has indeed been usual all through the history of loan-words in our language for them to become rapidly acclimatized enough to be treated grammatically and syntactically as English words. In modern times perhaps this does not mean very much, since so many of the more recent loans are nouns, and English nominal inflexions are so few; but it holds good in the earlier periods, when verbs and adjectives were adopted freely from Latin and French, though occasionally in Late Old English some words of the learned type,

borrowed in the written language, may keep their Latin inflexions. A few foreign plurals—chiefly in more recent borrowings from the classical languages—have been retained in English, these having become familiar, to many of those who use them, in the course of a classical education; such are agenda, desiderata, data, magi, radii, qladioli, nebulae, criteria, crises, theses; some nouns have the foreign plural as well as a native form, sometimes, though not always, with a distinction of meaning, e.g. appendixes, appendices; indexes, indices; formulas, formulae; funguses, fungi; geniuses, genii; hippopotamuses, hippopotami; and in words other than Greek or Latin, cherubs, cherubim: bandits. banditti; virtuosos, virtuosi. But classical words, even the more recent adoptions, which have become entirely popular never have foreign plurals; we have irises, crocuses, circuses, villas, spectators, omens, nasturtiums, not irides, croci, circi, villae, spectatores, omina, nasturtia.

Foreign words, when once adopted into English, have always been used freely with native prefixes and suffixes. Adverbs in -ly, adjectives in -ful, -less, abstract nouns in -ness, -ship, are found with French first elements almost as frequently as with English (e.g. nicely, pleasantly; cheerful, beautiful, fruitless; gentleness, companionship, etc.); and so also the English prefixes un-, fore-, over-, etc., may have foreign second elements (e.g. unaided, unbar, unconscious, forecast, overcharge, overawe, etc.). Hybrid compounds of noun plus noun, adjective plus noun, etc., are not uncommon; such are salt-cellar (English and French), heirloom (French and English), fainthearted (French and English), longlegged (English and Scandinavian), blackmail (English and Scandinavian), as well as the more recent scientific words such as claustrophobia, Anglophile, and even television. English has, moreover, adopted foreign (especially Latin) prefixes and suffixes, and many of these are living elements which can be used with words from any source (e.g. pre-, infra-, inter-, -ism, -ize).

When a foreign word is borrowed, it may or may not retain its original pronunciation in the adopting language. If each of its sounds already exists in the latter, it will probably be adopted in a pretty accurate form; if, however, some of its sounds are alien to the adopting language, each of these will be replaced by

the nearest native sound. Even if some speakers are familiar with, and can pronounce, the dialect from which it comes, their pronunciation will not be generally adopted. Thus there were different pronunciations of some of the French words borrowed in Middle English, the French nasal vowels, for instance, being retained for a time at least by bilingual speakers, while those who spoke only English substituted for them the English nonnasal vowels. Sometimes a foreign word in English will be partly anglicized, even by those who speak the language from which it comes. For instance, the word garage is usually pronounced with the first vowel as in English hat [æ], and not with the French vowel, but retains the French [ž] for the final consonant, though this sound does not occur as a final consonant in native words. Among some who do not speak Standard English, the word is completely anglicized, the [ž] being replaced by the group [dž] (as in the second syllable of carriage), which is common in English in this position. Similarly, the word voile, as the name of a material, usually retains its French [wa], though somewhat lengthened, but is sometimes heard, in shops, etc., with the anglicized (spelling pronunciation) oi [voil]; while French words with é, è, or ê have the vowel diphthongized to [ci] (e.g. fête, fiancé) since Modern Standard English has normally no long [e]. Again, the Spanish II, which is an I made with the middle of the tongue (in the same position as the consonant y [j]) and not with the tip, has the ordinary English I substituted for it, in words such as llama, llano; and for the Spanish ñ (pronounced like the an in French montagne) English people will use the two consonants [ni], sometimes even writing it nu. e.g. in canyon (Spanish cañon).

Once a word has become perfectly assimilated in the spoken language, each of its sounds will follow all the fortunes of that sound in the adopting language; French $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{e} , for example, borrowed in the Middle English period, undergo the same developments as the English $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{e} of that period, the former becoming $[a\bar{\imath}]$ as in Present-Day English line, fine, the latter $[\bar{\imath}]$ as in chief, brief.

Apart from the anglicizing tendency already referred to, the more recently a word has been adopted in English, the more likely it is to retain its original pronunciation, since it will have been affected by fewer purely English changes—changes which have been going on continuously ever since English became an independent language in the fourth or fifth century.

The principal languages which have affected the vocabulary of English have been Scandinavian, French, and Latin, the last most of all. Scandinavian words were borrowed most freely between the ninth century and the twelfth, French words during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, but Latin words have been making their way into English, throughout almost the whole period of its history, first into the spoken language, later into written English (through religion, literature, and science), though this latter form of borrowing has given many words also to the spoken language.

During the Modern Period, that is to say after about 1400, the most important period of foreign borrowing was the latter part of the sixteenth century, and the early seventeenth century. Then, as will be seen, many different languages first become represented in the English vocabulary, owing to the remarkable increase in England's direct contacts with foreign countries at this time, which led to direct borrowing from languages which had previously affected the language only indirectly, and also to the appearance of words from languages previously unknown in England or even in Europe.

Before beginning an historical examination of the types of words borrowed from each of the languages which have influenced English, of the circumstances in which such borrowing began, and of the character of the sources in which they are first recorded, it will be well to consider some of the classes of what may be reckoned as loan-words which are not dealt with here.

Phrases from foreign sources are not often fully acclimatized, and are almost always used as aliens—printed in italics, or in inverted commas, and so forth; such are many French phrases, e.g. de trop, en règle, tout ensemble, femme de chambre, par excellence, feu de joie, joie de vivre, and Latin phrases, e.g. non sequitur, a priori, ad hoc, sine die, sine qua non (though it is true that to some people such Latin groups have a less foreign atmosphere than the French ones, probably because they are usually pronounced with entirely English sounds).

Secondly, names of places, when these are used as the names

of products, etc., without, however, the original sense being fully lost. Some place-names have become so thoroughly obscured (through early borrowing and consequently numerous sound-changes, or by dissociation from an original place of manufacture), that they have to be accepted as ordinary loans, e.g. chest(nut), currant, cambric, calico, which should be compared with such forms as Chablis, Moselle, Chianti, and other names of wines, Angora (wool), Morocco (leather), Nankin (china), etc., (some of which may be used either absolutely or attributively, like the last three).

Then there are what are sometimes called 'translation-loans', especially common in the case of compounds in the older periods of English, when a foreign word expressing a new idea is represented by the nearest equivalent of each of its elements, as when in Old English, for the Latin word $\bar{u}ni$ -cornus, the English form $\bar{a}n$ -horn, = one-horn, is coined; all-mihtig for Latin omnipotens, $g\bar{o}d$ -spell (Gospel) for Latin evangelium (from Greek eu-angelion 'good message').

Another type of word not dealt with in the present volume is to be found in forms borrowed by Standard English from other dialects of English, e.g. words from American English; or from Scottish or Northern English, such as bairn, raid, hale, which have a typically northern phonological development, or are known to have been widely current in the north before they appear in Standard English. (Words in Scottish, Irish, etc. of non-English origin, are, however, included, since these are really foreign words.)

To conclude this chapter, it must be emphasized that the 'first recorded use' of a word, especially in the earlier periods, does not necessarily imply 'first use', (a) because a word may be in current use for some time before it appears in any written document, and (b) because obviously many words may have been recorded for the first time in documents no longer extant. But in later periods the first occurrence in writing, particularly of words from the more remote languages, or of purely 'learned' loans, such as some of those mentioned in the concluding chapter, may be in actual fact the first use of the word in English speech or writing, or be almost exactly contemporary with this.

And so, leaving more general considerations, we must turn to a more detailed study.

CHAPTER II

LATIN WORDS BEFORE THE CONQUEST

The history of Latin words in English begins in the continental period before the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes crossed the North Sea to settle in this country. From the time of Julius Caesar onwards we have evidence from the Roman historians of contact between the Germanic and the Latin peoples, which led to the adoption of Germanic words into Latin, and of Latin words into Germanic. The Roman armies included northern cohorts, and their familiarity with Latin military terminology and with the names of everyday objects in use in camp and town, served to introduce Latin terms into the native dialects of these soldiers from Nordic tribes. Tacitus mentions Germani who understood Latin, but close acquaintance with it was perhaps not widespread even among members of the legions, a limited, partly technical, vocabulary of Latin words being sufficient for professional needs.

The interchange of words between Germanic and Latin speakers for the first two or three centuries of this era took place in the spoken language; that is to say, it was not usually Classical Latin which lent and borrowed but the widespread, popular, Vulgar Latin, which was the ancestor of the modern Romance languages, and which, even as early as the third century, was beginning to split up into its different branches in different parts of the Roman Empire. From our point of view the most important of these was the Gallo-Roman, from which came the majority of such early loans into English as show any dialectal variation from Common Romance or Vulgar Latin.

The words adopted from Germanic into Latin for the most part show no particular dialectal characteristics, which indicates that the borrowings date from an early period (perhaps before A.D. 350-400), though some are not recorded until considerably later, appearing for the first time in the individual Romance languages (e.g. in French or Italian). Most of these words are military terms; there is, for instance, burgus (cf. O.E. burh

'fortified place, city', Mod.E. borough; Goth. baurgs) in the sense of 'small fort; watch-tower' (the modern French form is bourg), which appears in second-century inscriptions, and is used by Vegetius in the fourth century. This writer, however, implies that the word is not fully naturalized: castellum parvulum, quem burgum vocant 'a little fort, which they call burgus'. Isidore, more than two hundred years later, has a similar phrase: burgos vulgo vocant 'they call them burgos in the vulgar tongue'. Drungus' a body of soldiers' is used by both Vopiscus and Vegetius in the fourth century. Carrago 'a barricade of wagons', from carr + Gmc. *hago 'hedge, barrier', is recorded by Ammianus Marcellinus about A.D. 400 as a Gothic word. (The element carr, which appears also in Latin as carrus 'wagon', is a Celtic word.) Among terms denoting articles of commerce, Latin borrowed spelta, a kind of grain, 'spelt' (first recorded A.D. 301, see Walde, Lat. etymol. Wörterbuch), sapo 'soap'; and among names of animals alce(s) 'elk' and urus 'wild ox'. Further, Romance used the words brando 'sword', helmo 'helmet', gonfalone 'standard', mariscalco 'farrier', baldo 'bold', besides several names of colours, which are common to a number of Romance dialects, and the adoption of which, it has been suggested, was due to the habit of the Germanic tribes (mentioned by Tacitus) of painting their wooden shields with colours. Thus Mod. French has blanc, brun, gris, bleu, all of Germanic origin. It happens not infrequently that a word borrowed by Romance from Germanic, and established in the French dialects, was later adopted by English among its loans. from Anglo-Norman or Central French.

It has been indicated above that the first spread of Latin words into Germanic was due to military influence. After the Roman soldier came the Roman merchant. From the time of the first establishment by Julius Caesar of an imperial province in the neighbourhood of the Rhine, the trade of Italy turned in this direction, and the inhabitants of the new province quickly learnt to approve the new stuffs and household vessels, the plants and their products, the ornaments and the games, which came to them from the south. Roman coins became generally used, and, when local mints were eventually set up, classical designs were followed. Towards the north, beyond the limits of the Roman

province, the spread of objects and ideas, and the words which accompanied them, was slower, and there is a not inconsiderable number of early loan-words from Latin to be found in the southern dialects of Germany, which apparently did not penetrate as far as the shores of the Baltic and the North Sea, and therefore are not found in Old English, or appear there only in a form which makes it certain that they were borrowed after the settlement in this country.

Since the earliest records of English date from the seventh century only, it follows that our evidence for the earliest loanwords from Latin is of an indirect character. Of the Latin words which occur in Old English, a fairly large number occur also in Old High German, in Gothic, in Old Saxon, in Dutch, or other Germanic dialects, and their wide diffusion points to early adoption. Sometimes, instead of or in addition to this, the form which they have assumed in Old English indicates the date of borrowing, since many of the sound-changes characteristic of Old English can be fairly accurately dated, and the absence of certain distinctively English developments in the borrowed words shows the time of their introduction to have been subsequent to such phonological changes. (Cf. the [sk] of school, O.E. scol, Lat. schola, and of scuttle, O.E. scutel, Lat. scutula, with the [/] of the earlier loan shrine, O.E. scrin, Lat. scrinium; when the two first were adopted the tendency for sk to become [/] in English was at an end.) Further, the presence or absence in the borrowed words of certain datable developments in Vulgar Latin gives some indication of the date of borrowing; instance, O.E. pipor 'pepper' must have been adopted before the time of the Vulgar Latin change of intervocalic p to b, later v (cf. Fr. poivre), or O.E. would have *pifer (f = v); on the other hand, O.E. cæfester 'halter' (Lat. capistrum) represents Vulgar Lat. cabistrum or cavistrum, and so must have been borrowed after the period of this change.

After the English came to this country the chief source of Latin loan-words was the Vulgar Latin used by the Romano-Britons. It is sometimes impossible to distinguish between loans of the later continental period (between 300 and 450) and those of the first centuries of the settlement (450-650), and in some cases, though these are in a minority, words included in the

lists representing these two periods respectively (see App. A) might be transferred from one to the other with equal probability of correctness. After about 650, words are introduced which no longer come under the influence of the early Old English sound-changes; now, too, the source of the loans is Classical Latin as much as, or more than, Vulgar Latin or Romance, owing to the western spread of Latin writings and scholarship. The introduction of Christianity into England during the early seventh century was the starting-point of this new influx, and since much of the early prose of this country is of a religious character, and is partly at least dependent on Latin sources, many of the new Latin words which now appear are of a religious character. Later, 'learned' words relating to scholarship in general appear in English works as the scope of these is widened.

It will be seen that a large majority of the earliest loans are nouns—the names of concrete objects. Adjectives and verbs are rare, and most of the latter are derivatives from nouns (e.g. pīnian 'to punish, torment', from the noun pīn, from Lat. pēna, poena 'punishment'). More verbs are introduced during the third period (i.e. after 600-650), but even then are less common than nouns; adjectives are still rare, and such as do occur are often remodelled by the change of a Latin suffix to an English one (e.g. mechanic-us 'mechanical' appears as mechanisc, with the substitution of Eng. -isc, Mod. -ish, for Lat. -ic-). Old English suffixes are used freely to form derivative nouns, adjectives, and adverbs from Latin nouns; e.g. pāpdōm 'papacy', from Lat. papa and O.E. -dōm (as in kingdom); sacerdhād 'priesthood'; regollīce 'according to rule'. Hybrid compounds are not uncommon, e.g. sealmscop 'psalmist' from Lat. psalma and O.E. scop' poet'.

Not nearly all of the words borrowed before the Conquest have survived to the present day. Many were replaced by introductions from French, which, though coming from the same Latin form as the Old English word, have acquired a distinctive form in French itself. Thus Mod. Eng. gem is from Old French gemme, from Lat. gemma; the latter had been borrowed by Germanic before the English settlement in England, and appears

in Old English as gimm; if this had survived it would have been uim in Modern English.1

The extent to which the individual words are used varies considerably. Some words may be found in almost any Old English text which is examined; for our knowledge of others we are dependent on a single occurrence, perhaps in a glossary of the tenth or eleventh century, or in a medical prescription. This fact probably does not in all cases reflect the frequency of use in the spoken language, since the distribution of the words in writing naturally depends on the subject dealt with, and the Old English documents, though their scope is fairly wide, do not cover all aspects of ordinary life.

A list of the Old English loans from Latin is given in Appendix A for reference, with their Latin or Romance originals, divided roughly into three periods and classified according to their meaning. It should be noted that a number of words coming into English from Latin were previously adopted into that language from Greek; this is often the case with words relating to the arts and sciences; the corresponding Greek forms are given in the lists.

A glance at the list will show the changing character of the loanwords in the different periods. In the earliest stratum there are moderately large groups of military and official and of general trade terms; a longer list for dress and textiles (twenty-three words), and equally long ones for vessels and receptacles, and for towns, houses, and building. But words for plants and agriculture form the largest group; many of the plant-names are ultimately of more remote origin than Latin (some are from Egyptian and Asiatic sources) and imply the gradual introduction into Western Europe of plants from the south and east.2 A number of the animal-names, too, are non-European, and indicate the increasing acquaintance of Europe with the Eastern world.

Of the lists from the second period, the longest are provided by vessels (again) and by plants and agriculture. The number of

² On early agriculture and horticulture in England see Hoops, Waldbäume und Kulturpflanzen, especially chs. xiii-xv.

¹ In the chapters on Old English and in Appendix A the modern English equivalent, if it is derived directly from the O.E. form, is given in small capitals. If a modern derivative exists, though not exactly the same in meaning as the O.E. word, it is added in brackets in small capitals.

vessel-names from this and the earlier period implies a very large variety of these used by Latin-speaking peoples, and only a small number used by the Germanic peoples before they came into contact with the south. Some of these terms survive now as very common words: cup, bin, chest, pan, pail, pot. The etymology of many of their Latin or Vulgar Latin forms is doubtful.

In the second period a new class is added: Learning and religion. (For the earliest introductions under the influence of Christianity see the section on Greek.) This includes such words as MONK, NUN, and MINSTER, besides pinsian 'to reflect, consider', glæsan 'to interpret, gloss', græf 'a style for writing'.

In the third section words relating to religion and learning have very much increased in number. As has already been said, many of these depend directly on written sources, and did not always penetrate into the spoken language. It is not always possible in the Old English texts to distinguish between the foreign words which the writer accepted as linglish, and those which he still considered foreign, and used, as it were, in italies. There is a fairly large group in this period of words relating to music and poetry—large, that is, when compared with the few words for these in the native vocabulary. (The most important Germanic instrument was the harp (O.E. hearpe), and the chief words for 'music' were glēo (Mod. Eng. glee), drēam, hleopor, and (ge)sang (Mod. Eng. song). The word poeta is not recorded before the Conquest; the native word was stop.)

For the large number of plant-names which are recorded in Old English we are indebted in particular to three books of medicine, on which some notes will be given later. It is probable that the plants named were not all grown in England at that time; some of them are impossible to identify with certainty.

We shall now discuss briefly the Latin element of the chief Old English documents, giving instances of the uses of the foreign words.

EIGHTH-CENTURY GLOSSARIES

We may begin with a group of eighth-century glossaries: the Cornus. Evinal, and Erfurt Glossaries, lists of Latin words

with their Old English equivalents, of which the last two date from about A.D. 700, and are often identical, while the first is a little later and longer than the others, though certainly related to them. Citations are from the Corpus Glossary 1 unless a special reference to one of the others is given. The majority of the Latin loan-words which appear in the Old English lists are from the oldest stratum of loans; some of them are actually the English developments of the Latin words they translate: buxus—box (tree) (not in Epinal-Erfurt) 47; castanea—ciesten (bēam) 'chestnut' 47; cerasius—ciser-(bēam) 'cherry' 49; coleandrum—cellendre 'coriander' 53; electrum—elotr 'lupin' 59; finiculus—finual 'fennel' 63; mentha—minte 'mint' 35; napis—naep 'turnip' 79. Among the more interesting correspondences are the following: (A) (= oldest loans) gladiatores—cempan 67; dulcis sapa—caeren (= ceren) 'new wine' 57; caepa—cipe, ynnelaec 'onion' 49 (cīpe also used to gloss ascalonia 'shallot': scolonia—cipe 95; coagolum—cese—(lyb) 'rennet' 53; ferculum 'a dish of food'—disc 63; also paneta (= patina)—disc 85; ebor 'ivory'—elpend(baan) (= elephant tusk) 59; nomisma—mynit 'coin' [MINT] 81, and numularius—miyniteri 'moneyer' 81; lenticula—piose 'PEAS' 75; popig glosses both papaver 'POPPY' 85 and cucumis 'cucumber' 55; perpendiculum—pundur 'plumbline' 87; promulgarunt (pret. pl.)—scribun 'decreed' 87; bulla—sigil 'seal' 45; appotheca—win(faet) 'WINEcask '41.

- (B) Byden glosses the Latin words doleus 'a large globular jar' 35, and cupa 'tub, cask' 53; vestibulum—caebrtuum (= ceafortūn 'hall, court') 105; fellus—catte 'CAT' 63; capsis—cest 'CHEST' 47; luteum—crohha 'yellow' 75; concha—musclan scel 'mussel shell' 55; segn is used for both labarum 73 and vexilla 105; alea—tebl (= tæfl 'die'), aleator 'gambler' 39. Finally biscop appears here, not primarily in the ecclesiastical sense, but in the plant-name biscopuuyrt 'BISHOP-wort' 67, glossing hibiscum.
- (C) (= third period. Very few of these: culinia—cocas 'cooks' 55; quaternio—quatern (4 on dice) 91; porfyrio—feolufer 'bittern' 87; immunes (= immanes) orceas 'evil ¹ Ed. Sweet. Oldest English Texts. E.E.T.S., 83, from MS. c.c.c.obg., exliv.

spirits' 69; locusta—lopust' locust' 75; the last two are not in Epinal or Erfurt.

An English word is added to the Latin loan in cyline 'KILN', heorde 'hearth', glossing fornacula 65. Cearricgge, from Lat. carrūca, a four-wheeled travelling-carriage, occurs in all these three glossaries, but is not recorded elsewhere in Old English. The Epinal Glossary has fax—fæcilae 'torch' 62, which is not in Corpus.

THE EARLIER VERSE 1

Although almost the whole body of pre-Conquest poetry is extant only in copies dating from the early eleventh century, yet the originals of some are undoubtedly to be placed at least as early as the eighth century. Widsith, probably the oldest, has, apart from tribal names, only two Latin words: win-(burga) 'wine-cities' (i.e. rejoicing in wine) 20, and casere 'emperor' 76. The latter word is used very commonly throughout Old English for the Emperor of the East and the Emperor of the West. (It is also used once with reference to David: casere creaftig 'mighty emperor', Psalm l, Gr.-W., iii, 2, p. 231.)

In Beowulf, the other heroic poems, and the so-called 'elegiac' poems, the Latin words are still of the popular type adopted into the spoken language in the two earlier periods. They are not very numerous. They are used with no sense of strangeness, but are perfectly at home in the language. The following are the chief ones found in Beowulf, with examples of their context: ancor: scip on ancre fæst 303 'the ship fast at anchor'; camp: in campe gecrong cumbles hyrde 2505 'the guardian of the banner fell in the fight'; ceaster 'city' 768; ceapian: madma hord grimme geceapod 3012 'treasure dearly bought'; clepan; deofol (see p. 52): gegyrwed deofles cræftum and dracan fellum 2888 '(a pouch) adorned with devil's skill and with dragon's skins': disc and orc: him big stodan bunan and orcas, / discas lagon and dure sweord 3047-8 'goblets and cups stood beside it, dishes lay there and precious swords' (of the treasure in the dragon's cave); draca, used for the dragon of the poem by the side of the native

¹ References are to lines as given in Groin-Wülcker, Bibliothek der angelsächsischen Poesie.

² See R. W. Chambers, Widsith, pp. 192, 212.

wyrm; gigant (one of the few late loans in this poem): gigantas pa wið gode wunnon 113 'giants that fought with God'; giganta weorc 1562 'the work of giants' (of a sword); **ġimm:** heofones gim glad ofer grundas 2072 'heaven's jewel glided above the fields'; mil; non; scrifan: dær abidan sceal . . . miclan domes, / hu him scir metod scrifan wille 979 'there he must abide the judgment—how the Creator will pass sentence on him; segn: segn eall gylden 2767 'a golden banner'; sigle; stræt: stræt wæs stanfah 320 'the road was paved with stones'; in composition with native words, lagu-stræt, mere-stræt 'sea highway' (of the ocean) 239, 514; weall: wid das recedes weall 326 'against the wall of the house'; sænæssas, windige weallas 572 'the sea headlands, windy cliffs'; wic; win: druncon win weras 1233 'the men drank wine'. Candel appears in Beowulf in the phrase roderes candel 1572 'heaven's candle, the sun', and it is in such phrases and with this meaning that this word is always found in Old English verse. Cf. godes condelle 'God's candle' (Phoenix 91); seo wlitige wuldres candel (Juliana 454) 'fair candle of glory': heofonlic candel (Guthlac 1264) 'heavenly candle'. It is also used in the same sense in compounds: dægcondel (Riddle 88/26) 'day-candle'; frið-candel (Genesis 2539) 'lamp of peace', etc.

The other heroic and 'elegiac' poems have nothing to add to these except for torr, which occurs in the Ruin: hrofas sind gehrorene hreorge torras 3 'the roofs are fallen, the towers in ruin'.

The early Biblical paraphrases—Genesis, Exodus, Daniel—have further foreign contributions to make to the vocabulary of English poetry: ælmesse: syle ælmyssan, wes earmra hleo (Daniel 587) 'give alms, be the protector of the poor' (A.V. 'by shewing mercy to the poor'); clūstor: pæt he up heonon ute mihte cuman purh pas clustro (Genesis 416) 'that he might go up hence through these bars' (from the speech of Satan in hell); culfre: ofer heah wæter haswe culfran (Genesis 1451) 'a grey dove across the towering waves' (of Noah's dove); earc, in Genesis of Noah's ark, in Daniel of the Ark of the Covenant; ele(bēam) 'olive-tree' (Genesis 1473); engel 'angel'; esol: ongan pa his esolas bætan (Gen. 2866) '(Abraham) began to bridle his asses' (the only occurrence of the word in

O.E. verse): mæssere 'priest', sacerd 'priest': bletsian pe bine sacerdos, sobfæst cyning, milde mæsseras (Azarias 148-9) 'Thy priests bless Thee, just King, Thy gentle ministers': segnian: he segnade earce innan (Gen. 1365) 'blessed the ark within'; templ: sunu Dauides getimbrede tempel (Exodus 391) 'the son of David built a temple'. Stræt is used for the way across the Red Sea: wegas syndon dryge, haswe herestræta (Exodus 284) 'the ways are dry, the tawny highways'. The tower of Babel is called a stiblic stantorr in Genesis 1700 ('strong tower of stone'). Segn is used for the pillar of fire in Exodus (127): the word appears elsewhere in the poem in the sense of banner'. If the emendation leon for leor in Exodus 319 is correct, as seems certain, this passage gives us the first instance of leo in Old English poetry: hæfdon him to segne . . . beacen aræred, gyldenne leon 'they had raised up a banner-a golden lion for a sign '. Ceaster is used frequently for 'city'.

The collection of Riddles preserved in the Exeter Book may include both eighth and ninth-century poems; some may be even earlier. They contain few Latin words which do not occur elsewhere in Old English verse, and few which are interesting in other ways. The following are found in the Riddles only: byden: bapedan mec in bydene 28/6 'bathed me in a butt' (with reference to the making of mead); cyrten: ful cyrtenu ceorles dohter 26/5 'a churl's beautiful daughter'; lilie: peah pe lilie sy beorht on blostman 41/27 'though the lily be bright of blossom'. All these, however, are to be found in prose. Line, pil, and rose appear in the Riddles for the first time in O.E. verse; cf. hildepilas 16/28 'javelins'; ic com stence strengre micle / ponne ricels oppe rose sy 41/24 'I am in scent far stronger than is incense or the rose'. Gimm is used in the sense of 'jewel': deora gimmum 84/36 'more precious than jewels'. Earc is used for a box: ofte mec bileac . . . ides on earce 62/2 'often a woman shut me (i.e. a helmet) up in a box'.

With the poems of Cynewulf and his school, which may be eighth or ninth century, we come to words of a more distinctly theological character, besides other new ones. The signed poems of Cynewulf (Crist, Elene, Juliana, Fates of the Apostles) have the following words which do not occur in the texts already discussed: apostol: only in the compound apostolhād (Fates

14) 'apostleship', with English suffix: the apostles are referred to as æpelingas, pegnas 'heroes, thanes', and in other such terms; calend: on Maias Kalendas (Elene 1229) in the month of May ': carc- (ern): da wæs mid clustre carcernes duru / behliden (Jul. 236) 'then the prison-door was closed with a bar'; (be)clysan (< clus 'barrier'): geatu stondað beclysed (Crist 323) 'the gates stand barred'); culpe: ne ic culpan in pe . . . æfre onfunde (Crist 177) 'I have never found any fault in thee'; mur: burston muras and stanas (Crist 177) 'walls and stones burst asunder'; pundrian: eow sceal . . . apundrad weordan (Elene 580) 'shall be apportioned (i.e. weighed out) to you'; scrift, in the sense of 'confessor': ne mæg burh bæt flæsc se scrift geseon on pære sawle (Crist 1306) 'the confessor cannot see through the flesh into the soul'; senoð: pæt ge seonoð-domas rihte recen (El. 552) 'that you may report the decrees of the synod correctly'; syre: unsyfre folc (Crist 1232) 'an intemperate people'. Draca is used in Elene for the devil: dreogap deap-cwale in dracan fæðme (El. 766) 'endure the torments of hell in the devil's embrace'. Rex is used twice in Elene (e.g. ece rex, meotud milde 1042 'the eternal king, the kind creator'); the word seems never to have been adopted into English, and is probably used here deliberately as a foreign word, though such usages are not found elsewhere in Cynewulf. (Ge)segnian means 'mark with the sign of the Cross' in Crist 1342.

The story of St. Andrew in the poem of Andreas has the words martyr: martyra mægen unlytel 878 'a great company of martyrs' (also in the verse life of St. Guthlac); marman(stān): geher ðu, marmanstan, meotudes rædum 1500 'hear thou, marble, the commands of the Creator' (St. Andrew orders the marble pillars to pour forth a flood); and tigle: tigelfagan trafu 844 'buildings gay with tiles'.

The *Phoenix*, though partly dependent on a Latin original, has not many Latin words, and hardly any which have not appeared before. The bird itself is called **fenix**: fugel feprum strong, se is Fenix haten 86 'a bird strong in feathers, which is called Phoenix'. This word does occur elsewhere in Old English, for instance in Ælfric's Grammar (c. 1000). Another bird-name is pēa: (of the phoenix) se fugel is on hive . . . onlicost pean 312 'the bird is in colour . . . most like to a peacock'. Tapur, like

candel (see p. 19), is used with reference to the sun: hwonne swegles tapur ofer holm-præce hædre blice 114 'when the sun's taper shines forth serenely over the tossing waves'. Solor is used of the phoenix's nest: se fugel ofer heanne beam hus getimbrep, and gewrcap öær sylf in oam solere 204 'the bird builds a nest in a lofty tree, and dwells there in that upper room'.

The verse life of St. Guthlac has the words mynster, regol, and mūtian: under haligra hyrda gewealdum in mynsterum 387 'under the authority of holy pastors, in monasteries'; pæt ic forbær rume regulas geongra monna 460 'I preferred the lax rules of young men': pas woruld-gestreon bemutad weorpað 42 'the treasures of the world shall be changed'.

The rest of the Old English verse will be dealt with later.

THE EARLY NINTH-CENTURY PROSE

In the legal documents of the late eighth and early ninth centuries 1 we find a fair number of words of the commonest and earliest type. Some, such as butter, cheese, wine, taper, pound, and also sester, occur in bequests: win: mittan fulne huniges oðða tuegen uurnes 37 (805-31) 'a measure full of honey or two of wine '; tapur: dritig teapera, gif hit wintres deg sie 41 (835); sester, butere: sester fulne huniges, sester fulne butran, sester fulne saltes 41 (835) 'a jar full of honey, one of butter, and one of salt'; cese: x hennfuglas and x pund caeses 37 (805-31) '10 hens and 10 pounds of cheese'; selle mon unege cæsa and fisces and butran and aegera 37 (805-31) 'there shall be given a wey of cheeses and fish and butter and eggs '. Ecclesiastical terms occur: selmesse: ageofan hio þa ilcan elmessan 45 (871-89) 'let them give the same alms'; mæsse: daet eghwilc messepriost gesinge fore osculfes sawle two messan 37 (805-31) 'that each mass-priest should sing for Oswulf's soul two masses'. Diacon and passion are both learned words: and aeghwile diacon arede twa passione fore his sawle 37 (805-31) 'let each deacon read two Passions for his soul'. Port occurs in the compound portwara 'citizens' 24 (839).

The Kentish Glosses 2 of MS. Cotton Vespasian D VI, from the first half of the ninth century, have little of interest for us, but

¹ Quoted from Sweet, Oldest English Texts, ref. number of charter and date.
² Wright-Wülcker, Vocabularies, i. Ref. to column.

they supply five words which do not occur in the earlier Corpus Glossary: æced 'vinegar' (glossing acetum) 66; pytt: puteus angustus—neare pyt 79 'narrow pit'; sæc = sacculum 62; tæpped: tapetibus pictus—gemetum tepedum 62 'embroidered carpets'; trifot 'tribute': tributis—trifetum, gafol 68 (gafol is the native English word).

The Vespasian Psalter, an interlinear English version of the psalms and canticles, from the first half of the ninth century, has some examples of the earliest recorded occurrence of Latin words in English, besides showing some interesting usages of words we have already noted elsewhere. The writer shows little inclination to use the words of Latin origin which correspond to the Latin words he is translating, though it happens occasionally in the case of the more exotic words such as timpane, usope. Assa appears in wilde assan = onagri 335; ceafor-(tūn) in in midle ceafurtunes dines = in medio atrio tuo 290 'in the midst of thy court'; calic: dryhten dael erfewordnisse minre and celces mines 202 'the Lord is the portion of my inheritance and of my cup'; ceder: gebriced dryhten ceder-beamas des muntes (= cedros Libani) 222 'the Lord breaks the cedar-trees of the mountain'; cerubin, probably to be regarded as still a 'foreign' word: du sites ofer cerubin 302 'Thou sittest above the cherubim': cocer: gearwadon strelas heara in cocere (= in faretra) 'they have prepared their arrows within the quiver'; culfre: fiðru swe swe culfran 261 'wings like a dove'; gigant: aefaeh swe swe aigant to earnenne on weg 209 'rejoiced as a giant to run his course'; gimm is used in ofer gold and gim' above gold and precious stone', where the Latin has super aurum et topazion 368; leo: swe swe lea in bedcleofan his 197 'like a lion in his den': mul: swe swe hors and mul 227 'like horse and mule'; munt: and geherde mec of munte dæm halgan his 189 'and heard me out of his holy hill'; mirra: mirra and dropa and smiring from hreglum from stepum elpanbaennum 249 'myrrh and "drops" and cassia from thy garments out of the ivory steps'; palm: se rihtwisa swe swe palma blowed 321 'the righteous shall flourish like a palm-tree'; plant: bearn din swe swe neowe plant ele-trea 377 'thy children like new olive-tree plants'; portic: oddæt ic ingæ in godes halig portic 289 (= in sanctuarium

¹ Sweet, Oldest English Texts. Ref. page.

dei) 'until I go into the sanctuary of God'; salm: noman dinum salm ic cweedu 209 'I will sing a new song to thy name'; tigle: adrugade swe swe tiqule megen min 213 'my strength is dried up like a tile'; torr: tor strengu from onsiene feondas 269 'a tower of strength in the presence of my enemies'; turtur: speara gemoeted him hus and turtur nest 307 'the sparrow has found him a house and the turtle-dove a nest'; ymen: niowne ymen gode urum 241 'a new song unto our God'; ysope: ðu onstrigdes mec mid ysopan 257 'thou hast washed me with hyssop'. (It will have been observed that a considerable proportion of these words occur in similes.) Further, there is a little group of musical instruments: timpana: in midle iungra plægiendra timpanan 279 ' in the midst of the young ones playing on the timbrels'; organa: in salum in midle hire we hengan organan ure 385 'on the willows in the midst of her we hung up our instruments'; cymbala: hergað hine in cymbalan wel hleodriendum 401 'praise him upon the well-sounding cymbals'; citere: aris wulder min, aris hearpe and citere 265 'arise, my glory, arise, harp and either ' (= psalterium et cythara). All of these words except culfre, gigant, gimm, leo, ceafortun, seem to be recorded first in English prose in the Vespasian Psalter. There are naturally fewer of the 'every-day' words in this text than in some others, and more 'learned' words.

THE PROSE OF KING ALFRED'S TIME

We must first consider King Alfred's own writings. Since a considerable part of these consists of translations from Latin, one might expect them to reflect the Latin vocabulary of the originals. This does not, in fact, often happen; it is least rare in the *Orosius*, where the subject-matter introduces such foreign ideas as consul, triumph, dictator. These are of the type of 'learned' words which were never naturalized in English.

King Alfred's translation of Gregory's Liber Pastoralis 1 is usually considered to be his first extant work. Here are some of the learned words which he uses in it; it will be seen that an explanation often accompanies them. Abamans: se hearda

¹ Ed. Sweet, Gregory's Pastoral Care, E.E.T.S., 45, 50, from MS. Cott. Tiberius B. XI. Ref. to page. The Latin, where quoted, is from the edition of the Liber Pastoralis in Migne's Patrologia.

stan, se pe adamans hatte 270 'the hard stone which is called adamant' (the Latin has durus adamas): carbunculus and iacinctus: on gimma gecynde carbunculus biò diorra òonne iacinctus 411 'among gems the carbuncle is more precious than the jacinth'; chor: se psalmscop cwæp... Lofiað God mid tympanan and on choro . . . on bæm chore biob monege men gegadrode anes hwæt to singanne anum wordum and anre stemne 346 'the psalmist said, Praise God with the timbrel and in the chorus . . . in the chorus many men are gathered to sing something in the same words and with one voice ' (but the Latin has the same comment: in choro autem voces societate concordant); cymen: ge tiogoðiað eowre mintan and eowerne kymen 439 ' you tithe your mint and your cummin ' (Lat. cyminum); epistola: on his epistolan to Galatum 116 'in his epistle to the Galatians'; magister: he cyöde öæt he wæs magister and ealdormonn 116 'he showed that he was master and chief'; manna: se sweta mete be hie heton monna 124 'the sweet food which they called manna' (the Vespasian Psalter has heofonlic hlaf 'heavenly bread 'for manna 297); purpura: purpura, ðæt is kynelic hrægl 84 'purple, that is a royal robe'; sacerd: sacerdas, dæt is on Englisc clænseras 138 'sacerdas (= priests), that is in English purifiers'; son: det hie noht ungelice dæm sone ne singad pe he wilnað 174 'that they sing sounds not unlike those which he desires.'

We may add to these some examples of words of a more ordinary character, either recorded in this text for the first time or illustrating interesting uses: alter: Godes alter 216, etc., 'God's altar'; the native word is weofod, weobud, which is also used in the text; apostol, common throughout King Alfred's writings; carcern: bendas and karcernu 204 'bonds and prisons' (= vincula et carceres); ceac: beforan dem temple stod eren ceac 104 'before the temple stood a brazen laver'; ceas: da wrohtgeornan pe cease wyrcead 176 'the quarrelsome who stir up strife'; ceaster is the regular equivalent of civitas 'city': da ceastre Hierusalem 160 'the city of Jerusalem'; it is also used to translate castra: he arend ceastre wid Hierusalem 162 'he sets up a camp against Jerusalem' (= castra erigit), and also templum: on pere Godes ceastre 252 (= in templum Dei); coc: koka aldermon towearp da burg et Hierusalem 310 'the

prince of cooks cast down the city at Jerusalem' (= princeps cocorum; the Vulgate has regis quoque . . .); fefer: an lytel fefres 228 'a little fever'; fic: swæ se flicbeam oferscedoð ðæt land 336 'as the fig-tree overshadows the land'; impian: hiene selfne fæstlice geimpað on eorðlicum weorcum 132 'grafts himself firmly into earthly works' (= inserit); martyr: he underfeng martyrdom 52 'he underwent martyrdom'; mentel: forcearf his mentles ænne læppan 196 'cut off the border of his cloak (= oram chlamydis); offrung: ruhtwisra monna offruna 368 'the offering of righteous men'; olfend: dæt hi forswulgun done olvend 439 'that they should swallow the camel'; papa: dryhtnes cempa, Rome papa 8 'the Lord's champion, the Pope of Rome'; pile: deah du portige done dysegan on pilan swæ mon corn ded mid pilstafe 266 'though you pound the foolish in a mortar as one does corn with a pestle; pinsian: pinsige ælc mon hiene selfne georne 62 'let every man consider himself carefully'; plantian: to plantianne . . . swa se ceorl ded his ortaeard 292 'to plant as the churl does his garden'; pyngan: hine pynge mid sumum wordum 296 'may prick him with words'; pyle: wa ðæm ðe willað under ælcne elnbogan lecgean pyle 142 'woe to them that wish to lay a pillow under each elbow'; sicor: ne bio we no dæs sicore 425 'let us not be sure of it'; solor: on dæm solore dæs modes 22 'in the upper chamber of the mind '(cf. the use in the Phoenix, above); street: at alcre stræte ende 132 'at the end of every street' (= in capite omnium platearum); tapor: hie hiene onælð mid ðæm tapore ðæs godcundan liegges 258 'they kindle him with the taper of the divine fire '; templ: in the sense of tabernacle: Moyses oft eode in and ut on dæt templ 100 'Moses often went in and out of the temple ' (= tabernaculum).

This is a long list, but the *Pastoral Care*, since it is the first considerable piece of connected prose in English (the *Vespasian Psalter* being only an interlinear gloss), deserves special attention.

The translation of the fifth-century Historia adversus Paganos of Paulus Orosius ¹ gives us a number of words connected with Roman history and customs; like the 'foreign' words referred to in the Pastoral Care, these sometimes have a note of explanation: anfiteatra: heora godas bædon þæt him man

¹ Ed. Sweet, E.E.T.S., 79.

worhte anfiteatra 102 (this has the Latin plural ending) 'asked their gods that amphitheatres should be made for them'; bibliothece: and hiora bibliotheco weard onbærned from ligette 270 'and their library was burned up by lightning'; cohorte: he hæfde eahta and eahtatig coortana þæt we nu truman hataþ 240 'he had 88 cohorts, which we now call truman'; consul: him da Romane . . . ladteowas gesetton, pe hie consules heton 68 'the Romans appointed leaders whom they called consuls' (cf. the later Cleopatra Gloss, which for consul has gearcyning or heretoga 375); istoria: ic sceal eac py lator Romana istoria asecgan 160 'I shall relate the history of the Romans later' (cf. stær, also from Lat. historia, but adopted into English through Irish; see p. 59); legie: hi hæfdon eahta legian 160 'they had eight legions'; palendse: æt pæs caseres palendsan 272 'at the Emperor's palace'; philosoph: hie sealdon Demostanase philosophe 124 'they gave to Demosthenes the philosopher'; talente: on ælcre anre talentan wæs lxxx punda 170 'in each talent was 80 pounds'; tictator: heora tictator, Camillis hatte 92 'their dictator, called Camillus'; triumphe: ðæt hie triumphan heton, bæt wæs ... 70 'which they called a triumph, that was . . .

The following uses are worth noting: casern for the feminine of casere (with the Germanic feminine suffix): hie heton his wife casern 266 'they called his wife Empress'; cest: two cista, ha waron attres fulle 258 'two boxes which were full of poison' (= arca); cyperen: ealle ha onlicnessa...ge ærene, ge cyprene 216 'all the images, both of iron and of copper'; elpend: he [Pyrrhus] hæfde xx elpenda 154 'he had 20 elephants'; leo: hæm Minotauro... hæt wæs healf mon, healf leo 42 'the Minotaur, which was half man, half lion'; mattuc: and sippan mid mattucum heawan 186 'and afterwards to cut it up with mattocks'; mydd: prio mydd gyldenra hringa 190 'three bushels of gold rings' (= tres modios); nunne is used for a vestal virgin: Caperronie wæs haten heora goda nunne 162 'one of the "nuns" of their gods was called Caperronia'; offrian: hie him pagit ofreden and bloten 162 'they still made offerings and sacrifices to them' (blotan is the native verb); port, in the sense of 'haven' rather than 'town': an port... pone man hæt Sciringes heal 19 'a port called S.'; scol: pære

scole pe he on leornede 284 'the school he learned in'; (ā)spendan: ponne his gestreon beoð pus eall aspended 21 'when his wealth is all spent in this way'; spynge: for pon pe elpendes hyd wile drincan wætan, gelice ond spynge deð 230 'because an elephant's hide will absorb moisture as a sponge does'; tigle: he is geworht of tigelan and of eorðtyrewan 74 'it [the wall of Babylon] is all made of bricks and bitumen'; tunece: hie him sendon ane tunecan 234 'they sent him a toga'; yndse: ælc wifmon hæfde ane yndsan goldes 196 'each woman had an ounce of gold' (= aurr uncias).

The Old English version of Bede's Historia Ecclesiastica 1 contains, as its subject would suggest, a large number of ecclesiastical terms. Such words as ælmesse, abbud, abbudisse, engel, mæsse, munuc, mynster, nunne, sacerd, salm, are common. There are a good many learned words, usually following Bede's Latin: antemn, letania: peosne letaniam and ontemn gehleodre stefne sungon 60 'they sang this litany and antiphon with harmonious voices' (= lactaniam consona uoce modularentur); archidiacon: pæs gelæredestan Bonefatius archidiacones 454 of Boniface the learned archdeacon'; balsam: hordærn balsami (with Latin ending) 174 'a store of balsam' (= opobalsami cellaria); canon: pæt halige gewrit se canan 486 'the holv scripture, the canon' (= scriptura sancta); capitol: swa we ær in pæm uferan kapitule cwædon 84 'as we said in the last chapter'; comēta: neowe steorra, se is cweden cometa 298 'a new star, which is called comet'; crisma: under crisman 404' attired in the chrisom ' (= in albis); discipul: heo gesomnodon micelne preat discipula 258 'they gathered a throng of disciples'; King Alfred does not seem to use leornung-cniht, the usual term in the Gospels for 'disciple'; he has, however, leornung-mon (applied to a woman) in the phrase discipula and leornung-mon regollices lifes Bede 236 (= discipula uitae regularis); domne: her rested domne Agustinus 106 'here lies the lord Augustine' (= hic requiescit domnus Augustinus); min domne, hwæt is pis fyr? 214 'my lord, what is this fire?' (= domine); eretic: wið Deodorum and Theodoreti and Iiba þæm ereticum 312 'against Th. and T. and I., heretics'; grammatic: grammaticcræft tydon and lærdon 258 'taught grammar'; martyr: ða

¹ Ed. Miller, E.E.T.S., 95-6, 110-11. Ref. to page.

prowunge para haligra martyra 40 'the passion of the holy martyrs'; prowunge is the native word equivalent to martyrdom; for martyr the word prowere is often used; meterfers: we... awriton, ge meter-fersum ge geradre spræce 366 'we have written, both in verse and in prose' (= et uersibus heroicis et simplici oratione); meterfersum asang and geradre spræce gesette 448 (= et uersibus exametris, et prosa composuit); metercræft = metricæ ars 258; non: py feordan wic-dæge... fæston to nones 162 'the fourth week-day they fasted till noon'; subdiacon: to subdiacone gehalgad 254 'ordained subdeacon'; tabul: gehalgadne tabul on wigbedes gewrizle 416 'a consecrated table in place of an altar' (= tabulam altaris vice); tra(isc): on gelicnesse pæs traiscan wæles wundade 154 'wounded in the manner of the tragic slaughter' (= tragica caede); but this should perhaps be troisc = Trojan, which is the word used in another, similar, passage (306).

The following may also be noted: ampelle: genom his ompellan and sumne dæl pæs eles sende in pone sæ 200 'took his flask and poured some of the oil into the sea'; ancor: pa ongunnon pa scipmen pa oncras upp teon 200 'then the sailors began to draw up the anchors'; crisp: and hæfde crispe loccas fægre 390 'and had pretty curly hair'; crūc: pa aðenede se biscop hine in cruce 372 'the bishop prostrated himself in the form of a cross'; fers: pa fers and pa word pe he næfre gehyrde 344 'the verses and the words which he had never heard'; meregrota: on ðam beop oft gemettan ða betstan meregrotan 26 'in these are often found the best pearls'; portic: in pære cirican norðportice 106 'in the north porch of the church'; prafost: prafost and ealdormon 232, profost and regolweard 360 (= propositus of a monastery); regol: peodscipe regollices liifes 226 'the discipline of regular life'; segn, used by the side of tācn to translate uexilla, cf. 144, 146, 184; stræt: ceastre and torras and stræte and brycge on heora rice geworhte wæron 44 'towns and towers and roads and bridges were made in their country' (= stratae).

King Alfred's translation of Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy 1 (and we include here the verse as well as the prose version of the Metra) has very few words of Latin origin which

¹ Ed. Sedgefield, Oxford, 1899.

do not occur in his other writings. Consul (as in Orosius) has an explanatory note: ba wæs sum consul, bæt we heretoha hatað 7 'there was a certain consul, which we call heretoga'; culpian is found in this text and apparently nowhere else in Old English: pæt mon scyle culpian to pæm pe him gifan scyle 71 'that a man must cringe to one who may give to him'; læden has here the sense of 'Latin', but boclæden is used also for 'Latin' (i.e. 'book Latin'), and occasionally in Old English læden is used for 'language' in general: cf. the references to Ælfric's Heptateuch below: must occurs here in the phrase beah be well lyste wearmes mustes 12 'though you much desire new wine'. The remaining words of interest in Boethius are a small group of bird and animal names: cypera: ponne eow fon lysteð leax oððe cyperan 176 'when you wish to catch "lax" or "kipper" '(i.e. salmon at two different stages); tigris: swiftran ponne tigris . . . strengran ponne leo 72 'swifter than the tiger, stronger than the lion'; ultor: se ultor sceolde forlætan dæt he ne slat da lifre Sticces 102 'the vulture is said to have stopped tearing the liver of S.' (when it heard the music of Orpheus).

Finally, from the version of St. Augustine's Soliloquies only two words need be mentioned: insegl: gyf dines hlafordes ærendgewrit and hys insegel to de cymd 24 (the first occurrence) if thy lord's letter and his seal come to thee'; line: be anre linan... wæs awriten 21 in one line was written' (see also Riddles), where line is used in the same sense).

Leaving King Alfred's own work, we may turn to the O.E. Martyrology, which perhaps dates from his reign, though the manuscripts in which it is extant are all at least a century later. This text has the words rose and lilie: swa swote swa rosan blostman and lilian 198 as sweet as the blossoms of rose and lily; also marm(ar), which has not so far been referred to in the sections on prose: peah hit wære marmarstanes 74 though it were of marble; candel is used in its concrete sense: swa hwelc mon swa condella onbærne 116 as though one were burning a candle; cæppa: pa dyde Albanus on hine pæs preostes cæppan 100 then A. put on him the priest's cope; crēda: gif he song his credan 144 if he sang his creed; relic: eall godes fole mid eadmodlice relicgonge 62 all the people of God in a humble

¹ Ed. Herzfeld, E.E.T.S., 116. Ref. to page.

visiting of relics'; sealticge: sellan anre sealticgan hire plegan to mede 156' to give to a dancer as a reward for her dancing'; pic and draca have already been noted in the section on the earlier verse: of pære com gan micel draca ond abat pone priddan dæl pæs hæðnan folces 90' out of it came a huge dragon and eat up a third part of the heathen people'; pa het se casere meltan on hwere lead ond scipteoran ond pic 96' then the Emperor ordered lead and tar and pitch to be melted in a cauldron'. The English equivalents given for the Latin names of the arts show that abstract native words could be constructed and used instead of adopting Latin ones: arythmetica, pæt is ponne rymcræft; astrologia, pæt is ponne tungolcræft; astronomia, pæt is tungla gang; geometrica, pæt ys eorö-gemet 212; mechanica, pæt is weoruld-weorces cræft; medicina, pæt is læce-domes cræft 214; musica, pæt ys dreamcræft 212.

The translation of Gregory's Dialogues by Wærferth, Bishop of Worcester, is another important prose work of Alfred's time. Perhaps the most interesting point about the Latin element in its vocabulary is the variation in the three manuscripts. The Oxford MS. (Bodl. Hatton 76) sometimes has a native word where the Cambridge MS. (C.C.C. S 10) has one of Latin origin and (more rarely) vice versa. The British Museum MS. (Cott. Otho C. I) usually has the same word as the Cambridge MS. (these two MSS. are very close in other respects), but occasionally agrees with Hatton against Cbg. It has been suggested that Hatton represents a revision of the version in the other two MSS.

The following are the chief instances:--

(A) Latin word in Cbg. :—

Cbg.	B.M.	\mathbf{H} atton
bydene	bydene	ele-treddan 50
bydenu	bydenu	kyfa 57
calicas	calicas	scencea 127
candele	candele	leoht(es) 143, 144
carcern	carcern	cweartern 107
epistolan.	epistolan	ærend-gewrite 38
militisces (mannes)	militisces (mannes)	þegenes 77, 78
spertan (= spyrtan)	spertan	wylian 110

$\mathbf{Cbg.}$	B.M.	${f Hatton}$
tapor	tapor	weocon 44
torre	torre	stypele(s) 170, 3
(B) English word in Cbg. :—		
beode	mysan	mysan 143
beode	beode	mysan 143

gesenodon gebletsodon gesenodon 124 god-webbenum god-webbenum pællenum 131 lof-sang (beod)-fers 62 lof-sang (ge)cide ceaste 64 (ge)cide

Sometimes Cbg. uses both a loan-word and the corresponding native word in the same passage: calic (here in the sense of 'lamp', not 'cup' as in the list above): pone tobrocenan calic pære ærran gesynto eft ageaf 50 'gave back the broken lamp as whole as before'; elsewhere in this chapter glæsen leoht-fæt; here the variation depends on the Latin original, which has calicem in the sentence quoted, but lampas vitrea later in the passage. Mēse: pa [grenan wyrta] to ure mysan bringed 181 'shall bring green vegetables to our table '; but beode is used on the same page.

The word templ is used in this text with reference to the temple of God and to that of Apollo. Solor, which usually has the meaning of 'upper room, solar' (cf. gested in pam solore bæs Mynstres 119 'stood in the upper room of the monastery') once translates palatium: peowode in pam solore pære Constantinopoliscan byrig 248 'should serve in the palace of the city of Constantinople'.

The following loan-words appear here for the first time in English prose, though some have been noted earlier in glossaries: cancer: gestanden on pa breost mid cancre pære wunde 278 'afflicted in the breast with cancer'; leahtric: pa geseah heo æne leahtric 30 'then she saw a lettuce'; cycene: pa awurpon hie pæt . . . in pa cycenan 123 'they threw it into the kitchen': cymbala: pa stod pær semninga sum man mid anum apan . . . and sloh cymbalan 62 'all at once there stood there a man with an ape and struck cymbals'; cemes: butan his kemese 68 'without his shirt'; dalmatica: man alegde ofer pa bære . . .

his dalmatican 329 'they laid his dalmatic over the bier'; him to gehet his writere and him dihtode 193 'he summoned his scribe and dictated to him'; fenester: oð þæt hit becom upp to pam fenestrum 220 'until it came up to the windows'; matta: pæt hine man alegde in his cytan on pa meattan 125 'that he should be laid on the mat in his cell': mæslere: ga to Abundium pam mæslere 228 'go to A. the sacristan' (= vade ad Acontium mansionarium); scrin: forlet pa scrine his feoh-gestreones 52 'left his treasure-chest'; milit(isc): pa wæron militisce men farende 194 'there were soldiers travelling' (= milites); spyrte: twa spyrtan fulle metes 203 'two baskets full of food'; traht: in pam godspelles trahtum be ic self awrat 283 'in the commentary on the Gospel, which I wrote myself'; trahtian, here 'to discuss': ongunnon trahtian, hwæder hi mihton . . . bæt unmæte stanclif onweg aleodian 213 'they began to discuss whether they could remove the huge rock'.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, the first part of which was compiled during King Alfred's reign, does not give us many words of special interest until the eleventh century. The following words from the ninth and tenth centuries, not very common in Old English generally, may be mentioned:—

Ninth Century: comēta (evidently a foreign word here): se steorra pe mon on boclæden hæt cometa, same man cwepap on Englisc pæt hit feaxede steorra sie 892 'the star which is called 'comēta' in Latin, while in English men say that it is the star with hair'; crisma: his crism-lising wæs æt Wepmor 878 'the putting off of his baptismal robe was at Wedmore'; cumpæder (recorded here only): Æpered his cumpæder 894 'Æpered his godfather'; domne: pa was domne Leo pape on Rome 853 'then was lord Leo pope at Rome'; legat: pæt seo abbot beo gehealden for legat of Rome 675 'that the abbot should be recognized as papal legate'; scōl: py ilcan geare forborn Ongolcynnes scolu 816 'in the same year the English school (at Rome) was burnt down'; senop: her wæs geflitfullic senop æt Cealchype 785 'in this year there was a disputatious synod at Chelsea'. Tenth Century: mynetere: and an myneter in Stanford 963 'and one maker of coins at Stamford'; Pentecosten:

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ Ed. Plummer, Two $\mathit{Anglo-Saxon}$ $\mathit{Chronicles}$ $\mathit{Parallel}.$ Ref. to year of Chronicle.

Pentecostenes dæg 973 'the day of Pentecost'; portic: binnan Gleawcestre on pam east portice sancte Petres cyrcean 918 'at Gloucester in the east porch of St. Peter's church'; sanct (usually used attributively): he is nu æfter deaðe heofonhe sanct 979 'he is now after death a heavenly saint'; clēric: draf ut pa clerca of pe biscoprice 963 'drove out the clergy from the bishopric'.

THE OLD ENGLISH GOSPEL VERSIONS

Of the Old English translations of the four Gospels 1 the oldest is the interlinear Northumbrian version in the Latin Lindisfarne Gospels, added to the Latin in the middle of the tenth century. A little later in date is the interlinear gloss in the Rushworth Manuscript, in which the Gospel of St. Matthew is in a Midland dialect, while those of St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John are in a southern Northumbrian dialect, and are largely dependent on the Lindisfarne gloss. The late West Saxon version is from about 1050, but may be considered here with the others. Taking St. Matthew first, we find that each of the versions has its own peculiarities. In Lindisfarne alone of the translations are the following words (though some are found elsewhere in Old English): cealcian 'to whitewash': byrgennum oferhiudum vel uta gecælcad sepulchres xxiii, 27 (= painted or whitewashed on the outside), Rush. and LWS. Gospels (be)hwitum; ceulas 'baskets' xv, 37 where Rush. has sperta, LWSG. wilian; cilic: in cilic and in asca xi, 21 'in sackcloth and ashes', where Rush. has in wite (= in torment), and LWSG. on haran (= in haircloth); cuopel, apparently from Med. Lat. caupulus: in litlum scipe vel cuople viii, 23 (= in nauicula), where the others use scip; cursumbor, where the others have recels, the usual native word for incense, ii, 11; mil (here equivalent to Lat. mille 'thousand', rather than 'mile'): suachua dec genedes mile strædena v, 41 'whosoever shall compel thee to go a thousand paces', where Rush. has pusend steppan, and LWSG. pusend stapa; non: to huil nones xxvii, 45 at noontide, Rush. and LWSG. nigopan tid 'ninth hour'; pinian: du cuome hider ær

¹ Ed. Skeat, The Gospel according to St. Matthew, etc. Ref. to chapter and verse.

tid to pinienne usih viii, 29 'art thou come hither to torment us before the time', where Rush has tinterga and LWSG. preagenne, all in the sense of 'torment'; plæce: in huommum dara plæcena vel wordum vi. 5 'in the corners of the streets' (the word word is used for a street in a town or for the hall or atrium of a house), where Rush, has wordana, LWSG, stræta: port 'gate': inngeonges derh nearuo port vel dure vel gæt vii. 13 'enter ye in at the strait gate', the others having only geat; seternes-(dxa): to sunnad xa vel to seternes-dxa xii. 8 (= xabbati). where the others have reste-, ræste- dæg; camell: hrægl of camella herum ii, 4 'a garment of the hair of camels'. Rush. and LWSG. using olfend (see below); trahtian: det is getrahtet, mið us god i, 23 'which is, being interpreted, God with us', for the gereht of the others. In Mt. viii, 5 Lindisfarne has centur for 'centurion', but explains it, pæt is hundrades monna hlaferd 'lord of a hundred men', and has also the phrase dæm aldormenn v, 8, where Rush, has centurio; in both passages LWSG, has hundredes ealdor.

Lind. and Rush. agree against LWSG. in having cælic (LWSG. drinc) in Mt. x, 42. Rush. has the following forms where different words occur in Lind. and LWSG.: diner: pa gepingadun wið pæm wyrhtum be dinere Mt. xx, 2 ' they agreed with the workmen for a penny', Lind. of pening, LWSG. ænne penig; discipul: discipuli vel his pægnas Mt. v, 1 Lind. deignas, LWSG. leornungcnihtas; pipere: piperas Mt. ix, 23, Lind. beameras, LWSG. hwistleras; sperta: Mt. xv, 37 and xvi, 10, for which Lind. has ceulas and monda, and LWSG. wilian; syfer: unsyfernisse Mt. xxiii, 27, Lind. unclænæ, LWSG. fylpe; torcul: gedælf in ðæm torcul Mt. xxi, 33 'digged a wine-press in it', Lind. wintrog, LWSG. win-wringan; synagoge: lærende in heora synagogum vel somnungum Mt. iv, 23 'teaching in their synagogues or congregations', the others (qe)somnungum; teppel-(bred): ne purh eoroæ foron pi hio is fot-scamel (the word used by Lind. and LWSG.) vel teppel-bred his fota v, 35 'nor by the earth for it is his footstool'.

The considerably later Late West-Saxon Gospels have the following individual forms: altare Mt. v, 24, the others wighed, weofud; coccel 'tares' Mt. xiii, 25, Lind. wynnung vel sifpe, Rush. weod; fann: öxs fann ys on his hand Mt. iii, 12,

Lind. omits, Rush. windin scofel (but fann in Lind. Lu. iii, 17); mīlite: pa mīlite geworhton pyrnenne coronan Mt. xxvii, 27 'the soldiers made a crown of thorns' (cf. Vercelli Homīlies, below); munt: he astah on pone munt Mt. v, 1 'he went up into the mountain', Lind. mōr, Rush. dūn; pytt: hig feallap begen on ænne pytt Mt. xv, 14 'both shall fall into the ditch', others sēap, but Rush. has pytt as an alternative to seap in xii, 11.

For the remaining three gospels we must content ourselves with giving lists of words (with one reference to each) which occur in Lindisfarne and not in LWSG., and vice versa. (Rush. may be assumed to have the same word as Lind. except where otherwise stated.)

1. Lindisfarne:-

assald 'ass' Lu. xiii, 15. camell 'camel' Mk. i, 6. casering, a coin, Lu. xv, 8. cawl 'basket' Mk. vi. 43. celmert-(monn) 'hired man' Mk. i, 20, etc. corona 'crown 'J. xix, 2. cunele 'thyme', Lu. xi, 42. cyrtel 'coat' Mk. vi, 9. discipul 'disciple 'Lu. vi, 40. lopestre 'locust' Mk. i, 6. magistre 'master' Lu. vi. 40. pic 'pinnacle 'Lu. iv, 9. pis(lic) 'heavy' Mk. xiv, 40. plætse 'street 'Mk. vi, 56. plett 'sheepfold 'J. x, 1. purble 'purple 'J. xix, 5. regol-(weard) 'ruler, nobleman' J. iv. 46. segne 'net' J. xxi, 8 (Rush. nett). stole 'robe' Mk. xii, 38. torr 'tower' Mk. xii, 1. trahtian 'interpret' J. i. 41. turtur 'turtle-dove 'Lu. ii. 4.

2. Late West-Saxon Gospels:—

altare 'altar' Lu. xi, 51. alewe 'aloe' J. xix, 39.

box 'box' J. xix, 39. byden 'pot, measure' J. ii, 6. candel-(stæf) 'candlestick' Mk. iv, 21. calc 'sandal' Mk. vi, 9. coce 'cock' J. xiii. 38. cypa 'basket' Lu. ix, 17. castel 'village' Mk. vi, 6. dihtan 'to order' J. xviii. 14. flasce 'bottle' Mk. xiv, 13. mangung 'merchandise' J. ii. 16. mese 'table 'Mk. vii. 28, etc. minte 'mint' Lu. xi, 42. munt 'mountain' Mk. iii, 13. nard 'spikenard' Mk. xiv, 3. offrung 'sacrifice' Mk. ix, 49. olfend 'camel' Mk. i. 6. paradis 'paradise' Lu. xxiii, 43. purpur 'purple 'J. xix, 2. sætern-(dæg) 'Saturday, Sabbath 'Lu. xxiii, 54. scrin 'coffer' J. xii, 6. seam 'wallet' Lu. xxii, 35. sicol 'sickle' Mk. iv, 29. spynge 'sponge' Mk. xv, 36. titul 'title 'Mk. xv, 26 (not in Rush.) toll-(scamol) 'treasury' Mk. xii, 41. turtle 'turtle-dove 'Lu. ii. 4.

These lists are the same in length, but differ in that the first has a fair proportion of words which occur nowhere in Old English except in the Lindisfarne and Rushworth Gospels. Cāsering, translating drachma, is found in the Rushworth version of St. Matthew as well as in the three gospels referred to in the ists; the word is recorded also in the fragment of Old High German epic poetry known as the Hildebrandshied, in the form cheisuring. For drachma LWSG, has the native word scilling. Celmert-monn 1 'hired servant', represented in LWSG, by hyra, hyremonn, yröling, is apparently from a Vulgar Latin form *collimbertus of Lat. collibertus 'fellow-freedman'. Plætse,

¹ See Jordan, Eigentümlichkeiten des anglischen Wortschatzes, p. 82.

plæce, from a Romance form of Lat. platea, occurs in Lind., Rush., and also in another northern document, the Durham Ritual. Plett 'sheepfold' (LWSG. sceapa-falde) seems to be from Lat. plecta 'hurdle'. Purple, with dissimilation of r to l, takes the place of the usual O.E. purpur; cf. the alternative forms turtur and turtle; the latter is, however, fairly common.

A few of the correspondencies between Latin loan-words and native words are worth noting. For altare of LWSG., the other Gospels have wighed, weofud, and this word is retained in the twelfth-century Hatton MS, of the Gospels, though this usually follows the LWSG. The word bæzere, bæbzere 'baptist' corresponds to the native fullwihtere, which appears in LWSG., though this also has bezera. For box, in sealf-box (Mk. xiv. 3) 'box of ointment'. LWSG. has stænne-fæt. For candel-stæf 'candelabrum' Lind. has leht-isern (= light-iron). For lilie in sceaviab ba hlian hu hi wexab Mk. xii, 27, Lind. has simply wurta 'flowers'. LWSG. uses qærstapan, usually 'grasshoppers' for the Latin locustas, Lind. lopestro Mk. i. 6. Munt occurs in all the versions, but though it is the usual word in LWSG.. Lind. more often has mor. For the 'learned' word osanna Mk. xi. 10 Lind. uses the native exclamation $l\bar{a} \ h\bar{\epsilon}l$. The word pīslīc (with Gmc. suffix, from Lat. pēns-us) 'heavy' occurs in Mk. xiv, 40, ego hiora pishco 'their eyes were heavy'; this is in Lind.; LWSG. has gehefegode (P.P.). Where LWSG. has sicol 'sickle', Lind. has rip-isern 'reaping-tool'. For torr in Lind. Mk. xii, 1, LWSG. has stypel (cf. Gregory's Dialogues, above). Leorning-cniht is the usual word in LWSG, for 'disciple'. For the learned paradis in LWSG., Lind. has nercsnawong, a Germanic word whose etymology remains a puzzle. For the Latin supra pinnam templi Lu. iv, 9, Lind. has ofer horn-pic temples, LWSG. ofer pæs temples hricg. For seam (V.Lat. sauma) in Lind. (Lu. xxii, 35) buta seame and met-bælig 'without purse and scrip', LWSG. has seed 'pocket, purse'. Apostol is used in all the versions, but LWSG. has ærenddraca 'messenger' at least once (J. xiii, 16). The native word for corona (Lind. J. xix, 2, corona of pornum 'crown of thorns') is cyne-helm (LWSG.) or, as Lind. gives as an alternative, sig-beg 'circlet of victory'. Cocc replaces the Gmc. hong in J. xiii. 38. The foreign mangung for negotiatio is found in LWSG.; Lind.

has the earlier and commoner loan-word ceping. Finally we note that Lind. and Rush. use the form cælc for 'cup' (Lat. calic-em). and LWSG. calix, the latter indicating a re-borrowing from Latin at a later date.

LATE TENTH CENTURY

The tenth-century glosses in MS. Harley 3376 give a few new words, chiefly of a learned type: cassan (pl.) glosses casses. retia 200; casul appears as the equivalent of byrrum 196; cetel of caldaria 197: ciper-(sealf) 'henna ointment' for ciprum 205; circul for circulus 204; platung(um) for brateolis, laminis 196; tunne for cantarus 198. Cocere 'cook' (with Gmc. suffix -ere; cf. coc, already referred to) appears in the compound cocor-panne, for frixorium 243. Scriptor, in the compound tidscriptor for chronographius 204, is perhaps purely Latin. English equivalents given for the loan-word sicul (glossing falx) are wingeard-seax, rifter ('vineyard-knife, reaper').

The Blickling Homilies 1 of the late tenth century have no new introductions, except perhaps laur (mid lawere gebeagod 187 'crowned with laurel') and spica, unless the latter is to be considered a foreign word: ele and nardus and spica, seo is brunes heowes and godes stences 73 'oil and nard and spikenard, which is of a dark colour and has a good perfume'. The following uses should be noted: binn: arweorbian we Crist on binne asetene 11 'let us honour Christ laid in a manger'; cantic: on hire cantice gefeonde . . . sang and pus cwæp 5 'rejoicing in her song, sang and said thus'. Gigant is used for Goliath: he pone gigant ofwearp 31 'he overthrew the giant'. Discipul is the regular word for 'disciple'.

The form orgel, as distinct from organe, appears in a tenthcentury gloss in the Blickling MS., in which the Homilies are also found: organo-orgeldreame 150 'the sound of a musical instrument'.

The Vercelli Homilies, 2 probably of the late tenth century, give us the word evangeliste: sægð oðer euuangeliste, þæt . . . 12 'another evangelist says that . . .', perhaps not to be regarded as

Ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 58.
 Ed. Förster, Bibliothek der ags. Prosa, xii (first half). Ref. to page.

an English word. **Syfer**(licnesse) (with a double Gmc. suffix) is used in the sense of 'sincerity' (59). **Milite** appears several times for 'soldiers': wæron pa milite pæs ge-refan men 34 'the soldiers were men of the reeve's'; an adjectival form of this word (militisc) has already appeared in Wærferth's translation of Gregory's Dialogues, and milite occurs again in the eleventh century St. Matthew (see above).

THE WORKS OF ÆLFRIC

Ælfric, abbot of Eynsham, is the most notable writer of the late tenth and early eleventh century. Trained in the school of Æpelwold at Winchester, he represents a fine product of the monastic revival of the late tenth century. His works are varied, including science and grammar as well as sermons and other religious writings.

The homilies, being of a popular character, contain few unusual Latin words, and some words of a learned type are explained: he is cweden protomartyr, pæt is se forma cy dere (Catholic Homilies, 50) 'he is called protomartyr, that is the first witness'; betwux dracum and aspidum and eallum wyrmcynne 486 'among dragons and asps and all kinds of serpents'; and even discipuli. bat sind learning-cnihtas 26 'disciples, that is learners'. Creda must have been a familiar word, and this is used without comment. or without explicit comment: pone geleafan pe on dam credan stent 274 'the faith which is to be found in the Creed'. Ælfric uses the form pistol rather than the more learned epistol: Hieronimus se halga sacerd awrat ænne pistol 436 'Jeremy the holy priest wrote a letter'. Arc is, however, a learned form, of more recent introduction than earc: God beleac hi bynnan pam arce 22 'God shut them into the ark'. The word regol is used in the compound regol-streea in its original sense of 'carpenter's rule' 362. Cranic 'chronicle' appears three times in Ælfric (e.g. swa swa Hieronimus sæde syððan on his cranice Hom. on St. John xvi 'as Jeremy afterwards said in his chronicle'), but is found otherwise only in a late gloss (Napier, Anecdota Oxoniensia vii, 24: cranic-writere—chronographorum).

¹ Ed. Thorpe, Homilies of the Anglo-Saxon Church. Ref. to page.

Ælfric's Saints' Lives 1 have much the same type of vocabulary as the Homilies, but with more words for household and other ordinary objects. Altare is used by the side of weofed. Caric occurs in this text only: genam ænne lytelne tænel mid caricum gefylledne 44 (pt. 3) 'he took a little basket filled with figs'. Carte is found several times for 'a paper, a deed': awrat on anre cartan 82 'wrote on a piece of paper'. Cristalle occurs in an wurðlic weorc . . . of glitniendum cristallan 132 'a fine piece of work of shining crystal'. Fant: to geleafan bringan and on fante fullian 85 'bring to the faith and baptize in the font'. Mechanisc (with Gmc. suffix) is found here alone: an wurdlic wearc on mechanisc geweore 132 'constructed by mechanical craft'. Mynecen is common throughout: modor ofer manega mynecena 94 'mother over many nuns'. Sanct is used fairly often (= se hālga): pa mynstermenn noldon . . . pone sanct underfon 136 (pt. 3) 'the monks would not receive the holy man'; so also is aspendan: aspende...ma ponne twa hund punda 132 'spent more than two hundred pounds'. Talent: pone onfangenan talent fram his hlaforde (pt. 3) 'the talent received from his master'. Note also the following: buteruc 'leather bottle': nan win buton on anum gewealdenan butruce 164 'no wine except in a little bottle'; cuppe, a late borrowing compared with cupp and copp: ne mage ge samod drincon ures drihtnes calic and des deofles cuppan 378 'you cannot drink the Lord's chalice and the devil's cup'; cycene: eode him to kicenan . . . and began to etanne 264 'went to the kitchen and began to eat'; foca 'a cake baked on the hearth': geseah pær licgan ænne snaw-hwitne focan 394 'saw lying there a snow-white loaf'; lenticul: feawa lenticula, mid wætere ofgotene 44 (pt. 3) 'a few lentils soaked in water' (cf. lenticula, pæt syndon pysan 48 'lentils, that is, peas'); mor: Þa hæðenan . . . mid morberium gebyldon þa ylpas, forðan þe mor-berian him is metta leofost 104 (pt. 3) 'the heathen encourage the elephants with mulberries, because mulberries are their favourite food' (Ælfric always uses ylp rather than ylpend, cf. ylp is ormæte deor, mare ponne sum hus 104 (pt. 3)' the elephant is a huge beast, bigger than some houses'); mynet-(isen): man awende mynet-isena on his dagum 516 'the coinage was changed in his day'; orel: geglængde me mid orle of golde

¹ Ed. Skeat, E.E.T.S., 76, 82, 94, 114.

awefen 172 'adorned me with a veil woven of gold'; post: pæt hus wearp forburnon buton pam anum poste 140 (pt. 3) 'the house was burned except for the one post'; tabula: on anum leadenum tabulan ealle mid stafon agrofon 508' on a leaden tablet engraved with letters'.

Ælfric's translation of the Heptateuch, his Preface to Genesis, and his short treatise On the Old and New Testament, contain a number of Biblical words, among which it is sometimes hard to distinguish real loans from merely ad hoc usages of foreign words. Among the latter we may class names of foreign plants, etc., such as cucumeres, stacten, though some seem to be used as English words: coriandre: swilce coriandran sæd 310 'like coriander seed'; lactūca: deorfe hlafas mid dære lactucan pe on felda wyxt 243 'unleavened bread with the lettuce that grows in the field'; polente: polentan des ylcan geares 384' parched corn of the same year'; por-(leac) and enne-(leac) 'leek' and 'onion' 309. Læfel translates Latin scyphum: and nim minne sylfrena læfel 193 'and take my silver cup'; orc is used for crater 272; (e)arc is Noah's ark, but the arca foederis is usually scrīn. Organe occurs in reference to Jubal, pe wæs fæder hearpera and pære pe organon macodon 94 'who was the father of harpers and those who made music'; another manuscript has fader hearpera and organystra. For 'Sabbath' Ælfric uses Sæternesdæg. Leden means both 'speech' and 'Latin' (see also p. 30): swilce edischenna, dæt is on Leden coturnix 253 'also quails, that is in Latin coturnix'. Fals (a noun) means 'fraud': hwi tyho ure hlaford us swa miceles falses ? 193 'why does our Lord accuse us of so great a fraud?' Further we have in the essay on the Testaments: titelian: two bec . . . man getitelode him 557 'two books were ascribed to him'; and the foreign plural seraphin: ba twa seraphin sodlice getacnodon . . . 1161 'the two seraphs betokened' And finally we observe that fers is used in the Preface to Genesis in the sense of a 'verse' in the Bible: on pære bec on pam forman ferse 56 'in the first verse of the book'.

Ælfric's Hexameron,² besides telling the story of the Creation, has some comments on natural history. Thus we have pard and tigris, though hardly as English words: ða swiftan tigres and

¹ Ed. Crawford, E.E.T.S., 160.

² Ed. Crawford, Bibliothek der ags. Prosa, x.

da syllican pardes 275 's wift tigers and strange leopards', as well as ylp (e.g. da ylpas beod swa mycele swylce odre muntas 289 'the elephants are as big as mountains'). Paradis varies between English and Latin inflexions: to dam upplican Paradise 512 'to Paradise above', but God hi da gebrohte binnan Paradisum, det we hatad on Englisc Neoranawang 427 'God brought them into Paradise, which we call in English Neoranawang'.

EASTERN THEMES

Still more names of plants and other things of Eastern origin are to be found in two prose pieces in MS. Cotton Vitellius A XV, the Wonders of the East and the (spurious) Letter of Alexander to Aristotle, probably of the late tenth century. The first has lāur (also in the Blickling Homilies): on pisse stowe beoð treowcynn þa beoð lawern-beame 61 'in this place there are kinds of trees which are laurel-trees'; ostre: se nænine operne mete ne pige buton sæ-ostrum 63 'who eat no other food but sea-oysters'; pipor: on pam landum bið pipores gemhtsumnis 53 'in those countries is plenty of pepper'.

Alexander's letter has the following Latin words, which seem to be used as English, besides some obviously regarded as foreign: canna: fen and cannon and hread-wæteru 30 'fen and reeds and reedy marshes'; columne: par wæron gyldene columnan swiðe micle 6 'there were very large golden columns'; besides sēam: pridde healf pusend mula de pa seamas wægon 13 '2,500 mules which carried the baggage'; epistol: da sealde he me gewrit and ænne epistolan 28 'then he gave me a writing and a letter'; also the animals lēo, olfend, elpend, mūl. The following retain Latin inflexions: balzamum, cristallum, smaragdus, cypressus, eclypsis, tigris, pardus, scorpiones, unio, carbunculis.

LATER VERSE

The Old English verse *Psalter* contains a good many Latin words which occur nowhere else in the verse, and some of them nowhere in the prose. Among the less frequent may be mentioned aspide, basilisca (pu miht . . . basiliscan tredan 90/13 'you may

¹ Ed. Rypins, E.E.T.S., 161.

tread upon the adder'), ceder, coc (swylce hi on cocer-pannan cocas gehyrstan 101/3 'as though cooks roasted them in a pan'), sallettan (singað him and salletað 104/2 'sing and play upon the harp').

The word pandher occurs in a fragment of a bestiary; tæfl and teosol in the Gnomic Verses of the Exeter Book, the former apparently used here attributively: tæfles monnes, ponne he teoselum weorpeð 185 'the gamester when he throws dice'. But for the most part the new words of the later verse are simply those of prose, and add nothing to the poetic vocabulary as such. This is particularly true of the technical Menologium, perhaps of the late tenth century, which uses such words as bises 'leap-year' (Lat. bissextus), kālend, circul 'zodiac'; it has also all the Latin names of the months, but these (as in the Martyrologium of an earlier date) are still in their Latin forms and cannot claim to be naturalized.

ELEVENTH CENTURY PROSE

The collection of homilies edited under the title of Wulfstans Homilien 1 are certainly not all by this writer, who was a slightly later contemporary of Ælfric, and Archbishop of York. Possibly the first five sermons in the collection are his. It will be seen that only two of the few interesting Latin words in these homilies come in this group: Crisma: donne se sacerd smyred mid pam halgan crisman breast and sculdru v, 35, 'when the priest anoints breast and shoulders with the holy oil'; crismale: mid pam crismale . . . man tacnað pæne cristenan cynehelm v, 36, ' by the chrisom the Christian crown is signified'; fals: pæt an mynet gange ofer ealle pas peode buton ælcon false L 272 ' that one coinage should be used throughout this people without any fraud; idol: ne ænig man idola weordje æfre x, 71 'that no man should ever worship idols'; letanie: ga man mid reliquium ut and mid letanian xxxv, 170 'let there be a procession with relics and litanies'; orgel: hwær ys heora prass and orgol? xxx, 148 'where is their splendour and pride?'; pinsian: hu swiðe man pinsað þa sawle on domes dæg xlvi, 239 'how severely the soul will be judged on the day of doom'; pipe: hearpe and pipe

¹ Ed. Napier, Wulfstans Homilien. Ref. to homily and page.

and mistlic gliwgamen vi, 46 'harp and pipe and joyous music of many kinds'; rabbian: ac læt pone deofol Antecrist rabbian and wedan xiii, 84 'but let the devil Antechrist rage and rave'.

The prose dialogue of Salomon and Saturnus 1 has little of interest, but the word ynce occurs in it—an early loan from Lat. uncra—in the sense of 'inch': [Adam] was vi and cx ynca lang 180 'Adam was 116 inches long'. It is to be found earlier in the Laws of Ethelbert and of Alfred. Examples of yntse 'ounce', a later loan from uncia, have already been given.

The prose Life of St. Guthlac 2 has the word ceren 'new wine'. otherwise recorded only in glossaries, and in the Leechbooks (dealt with later): Mid pam cerenum pære godspellican swetnysse 72 'with the new wine of the sweetness of the Gospel'. We may note also the use of fers: sona swa he bæt fyrmeste fers sang pæs sealmes 44 'as soon as he has sung the first verse of the psalm'; ymen: da hæfde he his sealmes geleornod and canticas and ymnas 18 'then he had learnt his psalms and canticles and hymns'.

An English version of Defensor's Liber Scintillarum,3 a compilation consisting of extracts from the Bible and the writings of the Fathers of the Church, has a few interesting forms: mægester (as well as the later magister): hefe mægster-domes 120 'the weight of responsibility'; nys leorning-cniht ofer magister fullfremed 204 'the disciple is not raised above his master'; plum 'down': plum-fepera hnescrysse 144 'the softness of down'; sacc: doð eow saccas þa na ealdian 156 'make for yourselves purses which do not grow old'; seam: seam assan 190' the burden of an ass'; seolc: on seolce and on cild clapum 87' in silk and in swaddling-clothes'.

The interlinear version of the Benedictine Rule in MS. Cott. Tiberius A III 4 has not very many Latin words; most of them are in the more technical parts, especially those dealing with the divine offices. The following should be noted: antemn 38; capitol (= lectio) 44; cufl: genoh bið munece twa tunican and twa cuflan habban 92 'it is enough for a monk to have two habits and two cowls'; greef: sex, greef, nædl 93' knife, style, needle'

Ed. Kemble, for the Ælfric Society, from MS. Cotton Vitellius A xv.
 Ed. Goodwin (1848), from MS. Cott. Vesp. D xxi.
 Ed. Rhodes, E.E.T.S. 93, from MS. Royal 7 C iv.
 Ed. Logeman, E.E.T.S. 90.

(in a list of a monk's requirements); reps: mid heora repsum 39 'with their responses' (=responsories); scamol: ofor rædincscamol 38 'on the reading-stool'; scyrtan: sum dinc of rædingum is to scurtanne 42 'some part of the lesson is to be curtailed'; soccas and hosan 92 'shoes and hose' (= pedules et socc : caligas').

Burhtferb's Manual 1 claims attention as a technical treatise on astronomy, mathematics, prosody, and other matters. In many instances he uses actual Latin forms without any English equivalent; he says himself: me ys neod pæt ic menge pæt Lyden amang pissum Englisce 'I am compelled to mix Latin with the English'. Very frequent loan-words are circul 'zodiac', clēric 'clerk', cyrten' perfect, exact', scrutnian' examine', trahtnian 'explain'. The following words are rare in Old English: cyrriol: pa æðelan munecas pære tide lof mid kyrriole . . . gewurðiað 126 'the good monks honour the praise of that hour with the Kyrie Eleison'; declinan: pa naman and pa binaman and heora declinunga 94 'the nouns and pronouns and their declensions'; epact: pisra epacta gerynu apinsiun 36' ponder the mysteries of these epacts'; termen: panne by & mycel gedwyld on pam Easterlicne termene 72 'then there will be much error in the date of Easter'.

Then, finally, there are three books on medicine, the Leech Book, the Herbarium Apuleii, and the Medicina de Quadrupedibus.2 All depend on Latin originals, and their chief value lies in the large number of plant-names which they record. Some of these occur fairly often in Old English, others are to be found in glossaries, others in these medical works alone. Among the rarer names we find (a) in the Leech Book: cunedlesse 'hound's tongue '110; safine 'savin' 100; nefte 'catmint' 62; alewe 'aloe' 60; aprotane 'southernwood' 60; slarege 'salvia sclarea' 58; saluie 'sage' 50; celepenie 'celandine' 26; bete 'beetroot' 18; rude 'rue' 18; (b) from the Herbarium: amigdal 'almond' 104; berbena 'verbena' 170; dracentse 'dragon-wort' 106; elehtre 'lupin' 148; organe 'marjoram' 216; petersilie 'parsley' 240. From the Medicina de Quadrupedibus we get croh 'saffron' 348.

Ed. Crawford, E.E.T.S., 177.
 Ed. Cockayne, Leechdoms, Wortcunning and Starcraft. Rolls Series.

Besides these there are many words, some of which are of Latin origin, referring to the preparing of prescriptions, such as names of vessels and instruments; ampulle, cetel, ceac, cuculere, etc., besides trifulian 'to pound up', trimessa 'drachm', plaster, etc.

The eleventh century glosses, which contain a vast amount of matter, give no opportunity of seeing words in actual use, but they include a number of words which are rare or not recorded elsewhere. A gloss to the Latin text of Ælfric's Colloguu (a Latin dialogue designed for teaching purposes) supplies the following: capitol: primam missam—capitolmæssan 101; claustor: in claustrum—to claustre 103; culter: cultro—cultre 90; lamprēde: murenas—lampredan 94; mangere: mercator—mangere 96; ostre: ostreas—ostran 94; pine-(wincle); torniculi—pinewinclan 94; cocc 'cockle': neptigalli-sæcoccas 94.

The Cleopatra Gloss (in MS. Cott. Cleop. A III) is probably of the early eleventh century. It contains some hundreds of words, with a good proportion of foreign loan-words. The following will give some idea of the variety: amel 'vessel for holy water': amulas—amelas 348; ampulle: legithum [= lecythum] ampellan, elefæt; calu 'bald': caluus—calo 276; campian 'to fight': agonizans—campiende 341; catt: muriceps—cat 445; cempa: anthletarum—cempena 345; centaur: centauri bæs centaures 374; cemes 'shirt': camsa—cemes 362; cietel: caldaria—citel 363; ceren: carene—cerenes, humigreares 370; codd- (æppel) 'quince': malum cidonium, siue malum cotonium, id est codæppel 411; cuclere: coclear—cuclere 281; draca: Leuiathan—se draca 489; fifele: fibule—fifele 403; glædene: gladiolum—glædene 416; læfel: aquemanile—læuel 350; lēo: leunculi—leonhwelpes 434; more: pastinaca—weal[h]more 271; munt: alpes—munt iofes (= Jovis) 355; not 'note': notariorum—not-writera 451; orc 'devil': orcus—orc, pyrs, heldeofol 459; pälent: ad palatinas-to dæm palentlicum 342; paper: papirus—paper 523; plum: plumnus—plum-treow 269; segn 'standard': aquile—segn 275; tapor: papirus taper 267; tæil: alea—tæfl 267.

From the Royal Gloss (in MS. 1829, Royal Library, Brussels): calcatrippe: heraclea—calcatrippe 298; cerfille: brassica—

¹ Wright-Wülcker, Anglo-Saxon and Old English Vocabularies, vol. i.

wudu-cerfille 296 (also glosses pastinaca 299); delfin: pina—delfin, mere-swin 293; glædene: scilla et gladiola—gladene 301; lufestice: lubestica—lufestice 301; punt: trabaria, caudex—punt 287; rædic: raphanus—ancre, pæt is rædic 300.

Finally there is the so-called Vocabulary of Ælfric, probably having no connexion with him, or perhaps based on a glossary of his but with very many additions. This is a classified glossary, divided into animals, plants, parts of the body, weapons, and so forth. The highest proportion of Latin words comes in the Nomina Vasorum, where out of fifty-nine entries twenty-six are Latin. or Latin-English hybrids: in addition, several are of unknown origin. Here are some selections from the glossary: balsminte: sisimbrium—balsminte 136; box: pixis—bixen box 'a box of box-wood' 124; canne 'cup': crater, uel canna—canne 122; casere: imperatrix, uel Augusta-caseres wif 155; cipp 'ploughshare': dentale-cipp 106; corn 'cornel': cornus-corntreow 138; cost 'costmary': costus—cost 133; cyrten: uenusto—ic cyrtenlæce 'I beautify '178; magdala: amigdala magdala-treow 139; malwe 'mallow': malua-malwe 139; morap: carenum-morap 128; munt: oreades-munt-ælfen 189 'mountain elves'; næpte: nepita—næpte 133; persoc: persicarius—persoc-treow 138; pervince: uinca—peruncæ 136; pilstre: pila—pilstre 141; pisle 'warm room': scriptorium—pisle, fer-hus 186; port: castellum—wic uel lytel port 140; post: basis—post 164; pumic: pumex—pumic-stan 148; reps: responsorium-reps 129; side, seolc: bombyx-sid-wyrm uel seolc-wyrm 121; solsece: solsequium uel heliotropiumsolsece uel sigel-hwerfe 133; suftlere: subtalarcs—swyftlearcs 125; sūtere: sutrina domus—sutera hus 186; suberige: satirion—suderige 137; tolnere: telonearius—tolnere uel tollere 171.

THE ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE IN THE ELEVENTH CENTURY

This account of Latin loan-words in Old English may fittingly be concluded with some notes on the vocabulary of the Chronicle ¹ in the eleventh century, since this text more than any other in Old English seems to look forward into the Middle English

¹ For the earlier part of the Chronicle see above, p. 33.

period. It is with this text, too, that the account of the French loan-words will begin, since the history of French words in English is not limited to post-Conquest days. And here, also, as will be seen later, are to be found the majority of Scandinavian loanwords recorded before the Conquest. Many of the ecclesiastical terms common in other prose of the period occur in the Chronicle. e.g. ancor-(setl), ælmes(ful), calic, candel-mæsse, clerec, crisma (se forlet his crisman and his hrode . . . and feng to his spere 1056, 'he left the chrisom and the rood and took the spear'), offrian, provost (pa cusan pa munecas to abbot Brand provost 1066 'the monks chose Brand the provost to be abbot'), regul, etc. In addition to these the following appear: Advent: Osmund biscop of Searbyrig unnon Advent for offerde E 1099 'Osmund, Bishop of Salisbury, died during Advent'; cantel-cap (= cantere $+ c\bar{a}p$, and elsewhere cantercæppe) 'priest's cope': cantelcapas and reafas E 1070 'copes and vestments'; capellan: bær Rannulf his capellane pæt biscoprice on Dunholme geaf E 1099 'gave Ranulf his chaplain the bishopric of Durham'; capitula in the sense of 'ecclesiastical chapter': pe abbot eode into capitulan E 1083 'the abbot went into the chapter'; chor, in the sense of 'choir' (part of church): ba Francisce men bræcen pone chor E 1083 'the French destroyed the choir'; decānus: se pe wæs decanus æt Cristes cyrcan D 1020 'who was Dean of Christ Church'; grad: swa pæt det blod com of dam weofode uppon pam gradan E 1083 'so that the blood came from the altar on to the steps'. Corona is used by the side of the native cynehelm: pa corona him on heafode settan D 1066 'to place the crown on his head'. Mægester is used in quite a general sense: bonne wæs he mægster on bisum lande E 1086 'then was he master in this country'; the more usual, but not exclusive, earlier sense was 'teacher'. Palant is used of a foreign palace: se casere gaderode unarimedlice furde ongean Baldewine of Brycge, purh pæt pæt he bræc pæne palant æt Neomagan C 1049 'the Emperor gathered a huge army against Baldwin from Bruges, because he destroyed the palace at Nijmegen. common term for a town or city: Rannulf eorl gaderade mycele furde to Hereford port C 1055 'Earl Ranulf gathered a large army at the city of Hereford'; of porte and of uppelande E 1087 'from town and country', etc. Pylece has the sense of 'fur robe'

in on merdene pyleceon and gra-schynnene D 1075 'in robes of marten-skins and of grey fur' (gra-schynnene is from Old Norse, see p. 69). Sester is still used as a measure for wheat: se sester hwætes eode to la penega E 1043 'a sester of wheat went up to 60 pence'.

This brings to an end the survey of the pre-Conquest Latin words in English. The influence of Latin is felt next in a less direct way, since it comes through French dialects developed from Romance, and not immediately from Classical Latin, Vulgar Latin, or Common Romance. This stratum of Latin words begins before the Conquest, but since there can be no real dividing-line between pre- and post-Conquest French loans, such words will all be dealt with in a later chapter.

It is perhaps surprising that so few of the early Latin loanwords have survived into Modern or even into Middle English. The majority of them were replaced by the corresponding French forms. Others were only technical, learned words and were not really established even in the written language. In other cases the objects the words denoted themselves passed out of use (e.g. some of the weights and measures, vessels, garments). The list of Latin words in Appendix A, in which the modern descendants, where they exist, are indicated, shows that many of the words which still survive are frequently-used, popular words. Altogether rather more than a hundred are in use to-day in Standard English (others, e.g. some plant-names, survive in provincial dialects), of which the following are among the most common: belt, box, butter, candle, cat, chalk, cheap, cheese, cock, cook, cup, fan, fever, inch, kitchen, mile, mill, pan, pea, pear, pepper, pail, pipe, pit, poppy, post, sack, school, silk, sock, spend, stop, wall.

Although some words were adopted direct from Latin in the Middle English period, the next time any very large number was introduced was in the Renaissance period, when, as in Later Old English, the terms borrowed were of a literary and learned type.

CHAPTER III

OTHER FOREIGN ELEMENTS BEFORE THE CONQUEST

A

THE GREEK ELEMENT

It has already been pointed out that a not inconsiderable number of words borrowed by English from Latin had previously been adopted into Latin from Greek. But there is a small number of words borrowed by Germanic direct from Greek. They are early loans, and it seems possible that some at least were adopted first by the Goths, and that from Gothic they spread to other Germanic dialects. The words in question are all from ecclesiastical Greek, and are the product of Christianity, but they must have been learnt by most of the Germanic peoples before these became Christians themselves.

The Greek forms are aggelos 'messenger, angel', diabolos 'adversary, Satan', kuriakon 'the Lord's house', presbyter 'elder, priest'. Of all but the first the phonological development is hardly clear, so that the exact story of their introduction into Old English cannot be told. The Old English forms are respectively engel, dēofol, cirice (cyrice), prēost. Modern English Devil, Church, Priest, are the direct descendants of the O.E. words, but angel is from French (from Lat. angelus, itself a loan-word from the Greek).

Engel appears first in prose in the Vespasian Psalter, hwoene læssan from englum 194 'a little lower than the angels', but is probably earlier in the Cædmonian poems, for instance in Genesis: pæt his engyl ongan ofermod wesan 262 'that his angel began to be overweening'. It is used almost exclusively in the Biblical sense throughout Old English, and it is not necessary to give many examples: englas stigon up and ofdune on ða hlæddre (Alfred's translation of the Cura Pastoralis 100) 'angels went up and down on the ladder'; he pær fram Godes ængle pæt bebod underfeng (Wærferth: Gregory's Dialogues, 13) 'he received the

command from God's angel'; he gesceop tyn engla werod, pæt sind englas and heah-englas, throni, dominationes, principatus, potestates, virtutes, cherubim, seraphim (Ælfric: Cath. Homilies, 10) 'He created ten orders of angels, these are angels and archangels, thrones, etc.'; Gabrihel his heahengel (Ælfric: Homily on the B.V.M., 32); buton lichoman swa swa synd ænglas on heofonum (Ælfric: Saints' Lives, 14) 'without bodies, as are the angels in heaven'. The original Greek sense of 'messenger' appears in engel min befora onsione ðin (Lindisfarne, Mark i, 2) '(I will send) my messenger before thy face'. The nearest equivalent native word is $\bar{a}r$, used both for 'angel' and for 'messenger, herald'; this is from the same source as $\bar{a}r$ end 'message' (Mod. Eng. errand).

Dēofol 'devil, evil spirit, Satan' is common in early and later verse, as well as in prose. It appears in the early Corpus Glossary (c. 750): orcus—öyrs, hel-diobul 83, öyrs being a native word for an evil spirit or ogre. (Cf. the Cleopatra Gloss., p. 47 above, where the Latin loan-word orc is equated with öyrs and hel-dēofol.) In translations from Latin it corresponds to diabolus or to daemonium: from hryre and diofle middeglicum (= a ruina et daemonio meridiano) Vesp. Psalter 319 'from destruction and the evil one at noon-day'; pa sona eode se deofol in pone massepreost (Dial. 73) 'then suddenly the devil entered into this priest' (= hunc simul repente diabolus invasit); cum, deoful, hider and unsco me (Dial. 221) 'come hither, devil, and unshoe me' (= veni, diabole, discalcea me); of demoniacal possession: alle yfle hæbbende and diowbla hæbbende (Lind. Mark i, 32) 'all those who were sick and possessed of devils'.

Cirice is used both of the building and of the spiritual body: to godes ciricum in supregum and in cent (Charter 45 in O.E.T., 871-889) 'to God's churches in Surrey and in Kent'; pur he wer het getimbrian cyrican of treowe (Chron. E. 626) 'where before he had had a wooden church built'; ane gastlice modor, seo is ecclesia genamod, put is godes cyrice (Wulfstan x, 67) 'one spiritual mother, who is called ecclesia, that is the Church of God'; cyrice is pure sawle scip (Wulfstan xlvi, 232) 'the church is the ship of the soul'.

In the Lindisfarne Gospels (Luke vii, 5) cirice, as an alternative to somnung (= assembly), translates synagogam: somnung vel

cirica he getimbrode us 'he has built us a synagogue'. In Ælfric's Vocabulary appears ecclesia—circe, and also basilica—cinges hof [= king's court] uel circe 184, with two late Latin meanings of basilica. Once at least the word is used of a heathen place of worship, for which templ is the usual word: gebletsode Romulus... mid para sweora blode pa cyrican (Orosius 66) 'Romulus consecrated the temples with the blood of their fathers-in-law'.

Prēost is the ordinary word for a priest of the Christian religion. The compound mæsse-preost is used for one who was competent to celebrate Mass, having attained the necessary orders. Mæssepreost often translates presbyter, the uncompounded word clericus: sum wæs . . . bescoren preost (Bede 428) 'one was a tonsured priest' (= adtonsus ut clericus); mid ane odde mid twam his preosta (Bede 162) 'with one or two of his priests' (= cum uno clerico aut duobus); ic Beda Cristes peow and mæssepreost (Bede 2) = Baeda famulus Christi et presbyter; Gaudentius se mæsse-preost (Dial. 56) = Gaudentius presbyter; but this is not an invariable rule, cf. pas hatheortan preostes unstilnysse (Dial. 65) 'the raging of the furious priest' (= presbyteri furentis insaniam). Either may translate sacerdos (for which also the Latin loan-word sacerd is found); yfle preostas bioð folces hryre (Cura Past. 30) 'evil priests are the people's destruction' (= sacerdotes mali); wære sum mæsse-preost, se mid his preostum . . . (Dial. 224) 'there was a certain masspriest, who with his priests . . . (= quidam venerabilis sacerdos erat, qui cum clericis suis). Note also: pær wæs Wilfrid preost pe siððon wæs biscop (Chron. E. 656) 'then was Wilfrid a priest, who was afterwards a bishop); Columba messapreost com to Pyhtum (Chron. E. 565) 'Columba the priest came to the Picts'. In Ælfric's Vocabulary the following group appears: presbiter sacellanus—handpreost; clericus—preost, uel mæssepreost : bingere (i.e. a priest in his office of advocate or intercessor); for hand-preost cf. Chron. F. 1051: Stigand pe was pes cinges rædgifa and hand-preost 'Stigand, who was the king's advisor and chaplain '.

Mæsse-preost is used occasionally of a priest of the Jews: æd-eau ðec ðæm measse-preost (Lindisfarne Mt. viii, 4) 'show thyself to the priest'. For priests of pagan religions the Latin loan sācerd is used.

The Greek words which came into Old English by way of Latin are given with the corresponding Latin words in Appendix A. But the introduction of these from Greek into Latin and thence into English is not the whole of the story. Greek itself borrowed a considerable number of words from Eastern languages, especially names for plants and animals which were imported into Greece, or became known there through travellers and writers, and these were transmitted into English through Latin. Sanscrit supplied Gk. panthēra (O.E. panther), margaron. -ītēs (O.E. meregrota 'pearl'), and peperi (O.E. pipor 'pepper') a highly contrasted group. From Iranian came pardos (O.E. pard 'leopard') and tigris (O.E. tigris 'tiger'), but also paradeisos (O.E. paradis 'paradise') the original sense being 'enclosure, park, garden'. Probably from Asia Minor, Greek borrowed the plantnames puxos (O.E. box), kastanon (O.E. ciesten 'chestnut'), kerasion (O.E. curis 'cherry'), kudonia (O.E. codd-æppel 'quince'), pisos (O.E. pise 'pea'), proumnon (O.E. plūm 'plum'). Rhodon (O.E. rose), and also, curiously enough, bouturon (O.E. butere 'butter') are from some Western Asiatic language, besides pelekān (O.E. pellicān), which is certainly connected with another foreign word in Greek, pelekus 'axe' (cf. Assyrian pilaqqi 'axe'). A Place-Name is the source of Gk. sabanon (O.E. saban 'sheet'); cf. Arab. sabanijiat, stuff made at Saban, near Baghdad.

The contact of European languages with Semitic also began very early, and is continued in the early centuries of this era through the medium of the Hebrew Bible, whence several Semitic words found their way into Greek and thence farther afield. The plant-names kuminon (O.E. cymen 'cummin'), hussopos (O.E. ysope 'hyssop'), sturax a kind of resin (O.E. stor 'incense'), and balsamon (O.E. balsam), are all Semitic; hence also comes the stone iaspis (O.E. jeaspis 'jasper') and the kamēlos (O.E. camell). A later loan from the same group of languages is Gk. abbas (O.E. abbod 'abbot') from Syriac abbā, originally 'father', but acquiring the sense of 'head of a group of monks' with the rise of monasticism, which had its origin in Syria.

There are at least three early loans from Egyptian into Greek, which penetrated into Western European languages:

khartēs (O.E. carte 'paper'), sināpu (O.E. senep 'mustard'). and el-ephas—the origin of the el is doubtful—(O.E. elpend 'elephant'); for the last, cf. Egyptian āb, Coptic eb(o)u 'elephant, ivory'.

Some North African dialect apparently produced or iganon (O.E. organe 'marjoram'), since the plant is believed to have come from that area.

Thus early loans from the East, if not direct, are fairly numerous. The next non-European words that will have to be considered are those from Arabic, which make a surprisingly large group in the Middle English vocabulary.

 \mathbf{B}

THE CELTIC ELEMENT

Three different strata of Celtic loan-words may be recognized in Old English. In the first place there are a few early continental loans, borrowed from Old Celtic, and common to all or most of the Germanic languages; secondly, there are words adopted from the Britons by the English after the middle of the fifth century; thirdly, there is a group of ecclesiastical and religious terms introduced by Irish missionaries. Almost all the Celtic loan-words became established as popular words; there is very little 'learned' element, such as there is in the case of Latin, since nearly all the words, with the exception of a few in the third period, passed from mouth to mouth, and not through the influence of literature.

Of the first group the earliest is the Gmc. *rīki- 'kingdom' (cognate with Lat. rēx), which appears in Old English as rīce (surviving now only as the second element of bishopric), in Old High German as rīkhi (Mod. German Reich). Old English has also an adjective rīce (O.H.G. rīkhi, Goth. reiks) 'powerful', from the same source. Both these words are very common in O.E. Mod. Eng. rich is from French, borrowed from Germanic, and thus of the same origin.

O.E. ambeht 'servant; service, office' is from a Gmc.

*ambaht, which is probably direct from Celtic, but may have come through Lat. ambactus. (From this Latin form, through Romance and Spanish, Mod. Eng. ambassador is derived.) Gothic has the word in the form andbahts: O.H.G. has ampaht. O.S. ambahteo. It is common in Old English, both as an independent word and in compounds: ambeht-secg, -mann, -pegen, -scealc, etc., implying 'servant, attendant'. In the Lindssfarne Gospels the word corresponds to Latin minister and discipulus: allra hlætmest and allra embehtmonn Mk. ix, 35 'last of all and servant of all': in onsione dara ambihta vel đara đegna his J. xx, 30 'in the presence of his disciples'. Ambeht is found both in heroic and in purely religious verse: ic eom Hrodgares ar and ombiht Beowulf 336 'I am Hrothgar's messenger and servant': eom ic . . . his ombeht-hera, peow geðyldig Guthlac 571 'I am his servant, his patient minister'. For the sense of 'ministry', cf. læste pu georne his ambyhto Genesis 518 'perform his ministry diligently'.

The O.E. dun 'mountain, hill' (Mod. Eng. DOWN, n., and also the adverb, which is from O.E. of dune 'from the hill') is often considered to be of Celtic origin. Corresponding forms are found in a number of West Germanic languages, so the loan, if it is one. must be of the continental period. Moreover, the O.E. vowel tells against borrowing from British, since in this dialect Celtic \bar{u} had become \bar{u} , perhaps had even become unrounded to $\bar{\imath}$, some time before the English settlement. O.Irish $d\tilde{u}n$, from which the Germanic word might have been borrowed, has the meaning of 'fortified place, enclosed town', and this is the sense of the corresponding word in other Celtic languages. This does not fit in well with the significance of Gmc. dūn, and though there is some slight evidence for a Celtic use of the word in the sense of 'fortified hill', this is not found until the fifth century, and is even then doubtful. On the whole it is better to regard the Celtic origin of O.E. dūn as non-proven.1

Words borrowed from the Britons after the settlement are chiefly the names of natural objects, animals, and things of everyday use. **Bratt** 'a cloak' is found in the *Lindisfarne Gospels*, in company with *hræġl* and *hæcla*, as a translation of *pallium* (Mt. v, 40); the word survives in provincial dialect. **Binn**

¹ See Förster, Keltisches Wortgut in Altenglischen, p. 166 ff.

'BIN, manger' may be either a continental loan from Gallo-Roman, or a loan from O.Brit. *bennā; it has been noted in the previous chapter. Bannoc occurs only once in Old English, in a gloss to one of the works of Aldhelm, where it seems to mean 'a bit, piece' (of a cake or loaf); it is probably from O.Brit. *bannōc 'a bit, drop'. Gafeluc 'a small spear' may be from Old British (it occurs in Ælfric's Vocabulary 143, glossing hastilia); so also may dunn 'dark-coloured, grey, DUN', which is found in Charters referring to tunecan, and also to stān 'stone'.

Of names of animals, broce 'badger, BROCK' is almost certainly from Old British (Ælfric's Vocabulary 119: taxus—broc; also in Med. de Quadrupedibus: taxonem, bæt ys broc on Englisc); assa 'Ass', already dealt with under Latin loanwords, and ultimately from Lat. asinus, may possibly have come into English through Old Welsh *assen.

Altogether the Celtic words of these two types are surprisingly few and doubtful. There are more certain loans to be noted under the heading of natural objects, but most of these occur only in Place-Names. Two at least, however, are to be found in the Lindisfarne Gospels, carr 'rock', and luh 'lake': cephas pæt is getrahtad carr J. i, 42 'Cephas, which is by interpretation a stone' (so Rushworth; LWSG. has petrus); geheaven of carre vel stane Mk. xv, 46 'hewn out of stone' (the others have of stane). Luh, also found in Northumbrian only, is the usual word in the Lindisfarne Gospels (rare in Rushworth) for 'lake, inland sea', also 'strait': before-fara hine ofer luh vel lytel sæ Mt. xiv, 22 'to go before him across the lake' (Rush. ofer sæ, LWSG. ofer mupan 'arm of the sea'); it is from Old Welsh *luch; cf. Gaelic loch. Torr 1 'a rock, rocky peak, hill 'from O.Brit. *torr, is found as a gloss to scopulum in Ælfric's Vocabulary 147 and other glosses, and also in the metrical version of the Metres of Boethius: atrendlod of dem torr Met. 5-17 'rolled down from the tor' (of a stone); it is fairly common in delimitations of boundaries in Old English charters. This word is found in modern Place-Names, especially in the south-west, but also in the north. More widespread in modern Place-Names is combe, coomb(e), O.E. cumb, from O.Brit. *kumbā (cf. Welsh cum). This also is most common in the south-west, but is to be

¹ See Forster, Englische Studien, liv, 103.

found occasionally all over England, except perhaps in the East Midlands. O.E. funta, which seems to have come to us from Celtic, but is ultimately from Lat. fontana, is found in a few names, such as Mottisfont, Havant, Chalfont.¹

Besides these words, which were probably adopted into the ordinary English vocabulary before being used to form Place-Names, there are a number of names of districts, places, hills, rivers and forests which were taken over directly by the English from the Britons. Kent. Leeds (formerly the name of a district), Lindsey and Kesteven (two divisions of Lincolnshire), are all from earlier Celtic forms, as are also the names of the two Northumbrian kingdoms, Deira and Bernicia. Devon and Cornwall are formed from Celtic tribal names. Celtic names of rivers are to be found in all parts of England 2; several have simply the sense of 'water' and occur repeatedly; such are Avon, Stour, and the varying developments of O.Brit. Isca: Esk, Usk, Exe, etc. Some are descriptive, such as Cam 'crooked', Dee 'holy', Dove 'black', and so on. Not infrequently a river has given its name to a town or village, as in the case of Dover (from Brit. Dobrā = water). Hill-names, too, fairly often survived the English invasion, and these sometimes became also Place-Names (e.g. Kinver, Clun, Penn).

Of Place-Names other than those of the types referred to in the last paragraph, the chief survivors are the names of the most important Romano-British towns, though many of them have an English suffix added: London, Reculver, Lympne, Win(chester),³ Salis(bury), Ciren(cester), Catterick, Carlisle, Lich(field) Ilk(ley), and so on. Besides these, Celtic town and village names occur in varying numbers in many parts of England. They are most common in the west, from Cumberland and Westmorland down to Devon, where the proportion of Celtic to English names is, however, surprisingly small, as has recently been shown in the English Place-Name Society's volumes on this county.

Finally we come to the very few Old English loan-words from Old Irish, introduced by Irish missionaries during the seventh century. The one which occurs most commonly in Old English

¹ On this and other Celtic Place-Names see especially Ekwall, The Celtic Element, in Introduction to the Survey of English Place-Names, pp. 14 ff.

Ekwall, English River-Names.
For chester, O.E. ceaster, see p. 25.

is dry 'a magician, sorcerer', from O.Ir. drui (pl. druid). It translates magus and maleficus; the native equivalent is scinlæca. Here are some examples of the use of the word: hie Simon pone dry swipe heredon Blickling Homs, 173 'they praised Simon the magician' (= Simon magus); fela pinga dydan pa geogeleras on Egyptalanda purh dry-cræft Wulfstan xvi, 98 'the jugglers did many things in the land of Egypt by their magic '; bisurcen wæs from drugum vel tungul-cræftum Lind. Mt. ii, 16 'was deceived by the magi or astronomers' (= a magis); sio [Circe] hi sceolde bion swide dry-cræftigu Boeth. 116 'she is said to have been much skilled in magic arts'; hi pær pa dryas ongunnon ferian geond bæt wæter Dial. 73 'the magicians began to carry them across the water ' (= malefici); pæt heo wære dryegge ond scinlæce Mart. 28 'that she was a sorceress and a witch' (-icge, -ecge is a personal suffix); her biod pa mæstan dryicgan and scinlacan Verc. Homs. 77 'here are the greatest magicians and sorcerers'.

The word clucge 'a bell' is recorded only once in Old English: sweg and hleodor heora clucgan Bede 340 'the music and melody of their bell' (= campanae sonum). It is known that bells were in use in Irish monasteries from a very early period, and many of the great bell-towers survive in all parts of Ireland. St. Patrick's own small bell, enclosed in a shrine, is preserved in the National Museum of Ireland. O.E. has also a native word, belle 'BELL', which is found in some manuscripts in the passage from the O.E. Bede just quoted, and also in Ælfric's Vocabulary as a gloss for tintinnabulum, and in the Lambeth Psalter for cymbalum: heriap hine on bellum 150 'praise him with bells'.

Ancor 'a hermit, anchorite', probably entered England from Ireland (O.Ir. anchara, from Latin from Gk. anachorēta), where devotion to the life of a hermit was common. It occurs more often in compounds than independently, e.g. in medmyclum ealonde... ancor-lif lædde Bede 360 'he led the life of a hermit in a small island'.

The remaining words are also ultimately of Latin origin, though they came into English through Irish. The first is ster 'history' (Vulgar Lat. stōria, fr. Lat. historia). The Irish form is stoir, and the process of development of this to O.E. ster is doubtful, though the ascription of the Old English word to this source

seems certain. The word occurs frequently in the O.E. version of Bede's Ecclesiastical History: para abbuda stær and spel pisses mynstres Bede 484 'the story and narrative of the abbots of this monastery'; in pis user circlice stær Bede 282 'historiae nostrae ecclesiasticae'; also in other writings: on Ongelcynnes stere, pæt is on historia Anglorum Mart. 86 'in the history of the English'; in the Harley Gloss: commentarius—stærtractere 207 'expounder of history'. 'Historian' is stær-writere: ic, swa soð-sagol stær-writere Bede 206 'I, as a truth-telling historian'.

Æstel 'a bookmark', recorded once only, in King Alfred's preface to his translation of Gregory's Cura Pastoralis (on ælcre [bec] bið an æstel 6 'in each book is a bookmark'), is from Lat. hastula 'a slip of wood', but probably by way of Irish. Another word relating to books is cine, glossing quaternio, and apparently meaning a sheet of parchment folded in four; it is from O.Ir. cīn, itself from Lat. quīna 'five each'.

Finally there is the disputed word cros 'cross of stone', from Lat. crux, cruc-em, which may have come into English through Irish (O.Ir. cross) or through Scandinavian. The popularity of the stone cross in Ireland, and the influence of Celtic art on the carved crosses of England, added to the nonreligious character of the words introduced by Danes and Norsemen and of their usual activities in this country, make the former the more probable. The word is rare in Old English; it is found in the name Normannes cros (a hundred-name, now Norman Cross, near Peterborough) three times in the tenth century, e.g. in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle E 963. Another instance from the Chronicle occurs only in a charter (and swa to Grætecros 'and so to Great Cross' Chron. E 656) which may be an addition by the twelfth century scribe of this part. Other Cross-names are recorded from the end of the eleventh century onwards, but its first appearances in literature are in the first manuscript of Lazamon's Brut, of about 1200: he [King Oswald] lette sone arere: a muchel cros and mare 31386 (MS. crost), and in a slightly different sense in the twelfth century St. Katherine (see below, p. 77). The O.E. word which it finally almost entirely displaced was rod, Mod. Eng. ROOD.

The next Celtic loan-words do not appear in English until the end of the Middle English period, and these will be discussed later.

CHAPTER IV

THE SCANDINAVIAN ELEMENT

The Scandinavian element in English is due in the first place to the Viking invasions of England in the eighth, ninth, and eleventh centuries, and their forcible settlement in parts of the country, but also, and in much greater degree, to the peaceful association of Englishman and Scandinavian during the eleventh and twelfth centuries. These dates are, of course, only approximate, but they serve to indicate roughly the two strata of Norwegian and Danish loan-words in Old English.

The first written record of a Viking attack on England is in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, where under the year 787 we read 'In this year King Breohtric married Eadburg, the daughter of Offa. And in his days there first came three ships of the Northmen from Heredaland. . . . These were the first Danish ships that came to England' (Laud MS.). Further raids (in which the monasteries of Lindisfarne and Wearmouth were plundered) are recorded in 793 and 794, though in the latter year many of the attacking ships were wrecked by a storm. In the year 832, when we have the next reference to the Northmen, the assault was directed against a part farther south: 'in this year the heathen men plundered Sheppey'. After this the attacks became more frequent and more widely dispersed, and brought the invaders in larger numbers. In the year 851 the Danes for the first time wintered in England, instead of confining themselves to their former brief incursions, and not long after this the first permanent Danish settlements on English territory were made.

There were two main lines of attack and settlement—that of the Norwegians, who, sailing round the north of Scotland, established themselves in the Western Isles, in Ireland, and in North-West England and part of Wales, and that of the Danes, who struck into the East Midlands and Yorkshire. The English had insufficient political unity to resist effectively, but towards the end of the ninth century the vigour of Alfred of Wessex prevented the invaders from obtaining a hold over the whole of the country. Through his military skill and courage and his political ability the continuous fighting was brought to an end for a time, and the Northmen settled down more or less peacefully to trade and agriculture and the building of towns, in the area known as the Danelaw, which included the East Midlands, north as far as the Tees, west as far as the Pennines, Nottingham, and Bedford, south as far as the Thames.

After the death of Alfred in 900 his descendants acquired some increased authority over the Danelaw, where Englishmen and Scandinavians were now living side by side, apparently on friendly terms. But at the end of the tenth century a further invasion from the continent brought a new danger. In the tragic reign of Ethelred the Unready, England, and especially Wessex, suffered continuous attacks from Scandinavians who were seeking now for political power as much as for material plunder. they were repulsed at all it was by payments of money, not by force of arms, and the effects of the enormous bribes which were repeatedly paid were of very short duration. The end of the fighting came at last in 1016 when, after a last struggle between the Danish Cnut and the English Edmund (son of Ethelred), the kingdom was divided between these two. The death of Edmund in the same year left Cnut as undisputed king of the whole of England as well as of Denmark and Norway, and from this time onwards we hear of no more Danish invasions.

During the rest of the eleventh century the Scandinavians gradually became absorbed into England and English life, and eventually, though perhaps not until the next century, their language was given up for English and disappeared, but not without leaving a distinct impression upon English, just as the Scandinavian legal and political customs left their mark upon English social life. For some time the Danes must have been bilingual, and no doubt many of their English neighbours and fellow-villagers and townsmen learnt to speak Danish. Intermarriage between the two races was common, and this encouraged the tendency to bilingualism. Scandinavian terms learnt by Englishmen were introduced by them into their own tongue, and became established there. This was especially easy since the Scandinavian dialects at this period had considerable resemblance

to the English dialects, particularly in vocabulary; the speakers of both were to some extent mutually intelligible; thus words introduced from one to the other language would carry with them little of the feeling of foreign words. In some cases the corresponding words in the two languages were practically identical, and it is sometimes impossible to know whether a particular word in Middle English is a loan-word or not. It happens not infrequently that a Scandinavian word has a slightly different sense from that of its English cognate, which sometimes led to the borrowing of meanings of words instead of words themselves.

The Scandinavian invaders and settlers did not speak a uniform dialect, though the varieties were not very strikingly differentiated. The Norwegians and Danes spoke respectively a West Scandinavian and an East Scandinavian dialect. The former is now represented by Modern Norwegian and Icelandic, the latter by Danish and Swedish. It is not always possible to assign a loan-word with certainty to one or other of these two dialects, but occasionally a definite phonological distinction enables us to do so.

The first period of Scandinavian loan-words, up to about the second decade of the eleventh century, seems to have introduced very few words into English, to judge by those which are recorded in writing at that period. Of these about fifty were still in use in Middle English, and about twenty-five have survived to the present day. The extant documents may be misleading as to the number of words borrowed before 1016, since practically all the written material of the early eleventh century which we now have comes from the south of the country and not from the Danelaw. But it is improbable that there was very much genuine word-borrowing until the more settled conditions after 1016 had come into being. The earliest loans, as will be seen, are of a more or less technical character, having to do chiefly with the sea and with legal customs; those adopted before about 1150 are partly of a similar character, though some more miscellaneous words occur; the later (M.E.) adoptions have no such limitations, and embrace even the most commonplace words, no introduction of new objects or ideas being implied. Hundreds of Scandinavian words are recorded for the first time in the thirteenth century, but many of these were doubtless in use in some parts of the country earlier than this. As has already been said of the tenth and early eleventh centuries, only a little East Midland material is extant from the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and in any case the type of word being borrowed at this period was not such as would readily find its way into literature

THE EARLIEST LOANS FROM SCANDINAVIAN

Of the earliest loans and those of the second period the greater number are to be found in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* and the *Laws*; some appear only in vocabularies; a few are confined to Northumbrian texts such as the Lindisfarne and Rushworth Gospels and the Durham Ritual.

About thirty words may be ascribed to the period before 1016. This includes the names of four types of ships: baroa, barda 'a beaked ship' (O.N. barð 'armed prow', barði 'a ram; a kind of ship'), found only in glosses and translating rostrata nauis (Harley and Royal Glosses) and dromo (Ælf. Voc. 181; here equated with æsc. a common native name for the Danish ships); cnearr (O.N. knorr, a small ship, trading vessel), in the poem known as the Battle of Brunanburh (under the year 937 in the Chronicle): cread cnear on flot 'the ship hastened out to sea'; gewitan him ba Nordmen nægled cnearrum 'the Northmen departed in their nailed ships' (both passages refer to the ships of the Danes); floege 'a little ship' (cf. Icelandic fley 'ship' 1), only in Lind. J. vi, 22: floege uel lyttel scip, translating navicula; this word is found at least once in Middle English, fleyne (pl.) in the romance of Octavian (southern version, c. 1350); scego, a light ship, both in glossaries and in the Chronicle: scapha, uel trieris-litel scip uel sceigð (Ælf. Voc. 165); trierisscægþ (Royal Gloss. 289); of x hidon ænne scegð (Chron. E 1008) 'one ship for every ten hides'; the corresponding passage in the Latin version (in F) has unam magnam nauem quæ Anglice nominatur scegp; cf. also wicing [= Viking] uel scegoman, glossing pirata uel piraticus (Ælf. Voc. 111).

Ten words denoting persons were now borrowed: bonda, husbonda, -bunda 'householder, husband' (M.E. bonde

1 The O.N. form was probably flag.

'husbandman'): swa ymbe fripes bote swa pam bondan sy selost and pam peofon sy latost (Laws of Æthelred vi, 32) 'so concerning (the maintenance of) public safety in such a way as may be best for the householder and worst for the thief'; an his manna wolde wician æt anes bundan huse his unpances . . . and se husbunda ofsloh bone oderne (Chron, E 1048) one of his men wished to stop at a man's house against his will . . . and the master of the house slew the other'. A feminine form appears to be used in Ælfric's Heptateuch: da Israeliscan wif biddab æt dam Egiptiscean wifon æt hira nehaeburon and æt hira husbondum (= Lat. hospita) sylfrene fatu (Exod. iii, 22) 'the Israelitish women shall ask the Egyptian women, their neighbours, and the mistresses of houses, for silver cups'. Husbond with the sense of 'householder' is still found in Chaucer. Dreng 'warrior' (O.N. drengr) only in the poem of the Battle of Maldon: forlet pa drenga sum daroð of handa/fleogan of folman 149 'one of the warriors let a javelin from his hand fly from his palm'; this survives in earlier Middle English, e.g. in Lazamon's Brut (dring) and Havelok (dreng). Feolaga 'FELLOW', colleague, mate' (O.N.) fēlagi): and wurdon feolagan and wed-bropra (Chron. D 1016. 'and became fellows and sworn brothers' (of Edmund and Cnut); also the compound feolog-scip: ic wille pat min and Ulfketels felageschipe stonde (from a Charter in Thorpe's Diplomatarium Aevi Saxonici, p. 573). Hold, a title, 'vassal' (O.N. holdr): Ysopa hold and Oscytel hold (Chron. A 905); him cierde to Durferp eorl and pa holdas (Chron. A 921) 'Earl Thurferth and the "holds" turned to him'; the high rank of the hold is indicated by the fact that his wergeld was four thousand prymsas (= 1,000 shillings); the word occurs also in Lind. Mk. vi, 21: symbel worhte dæm aldormannum and holdum and forwostum Galileæs (= cenam fecit principibus et tribunis et primis Galileae). Liesing 'a freedman' (O.N. leysingr. with approximation to O.E. hesan 'to set free') seems to be recorded once only: buton dam ceorle de on gafollande sit and heora liesengum (Laws of Alfred and Guthrum, 880-890, but MS. c. 1125) 'except the commoner who is settled on tributary land. and their freedmen [i.e. of the Danes]'. Niöing 'villain' (O.N. nīðingr): wælreaf is niðinges dæd (Laws of Æthelstan iv, 7, c. 1000) 'robbing the slain is the act of a villain'; se cing pa

and eall here cwædon Swegen for niðing (Chron. C 1049) ' the king and all the army declared Sweyn a villain'; also unniding an honest man': bead bæt ælc man be wære unniðing sceolde cuman to him (Chron, E 1087) 'ordered that every honest man should come to him'; $n\bar{\imath}\partial ing$ is fairly common in Middle English. **Bir** 'maid-servant' (O.N. $\bar{\jmath}\bar{\imath}r-r$), in the Lindisfarne and Rushworth Gospels, as an alternative to the native pignen, translating ancilla (John xviii, 17). Dræl 'servant, slave, 'THRALL' (O.N. bræll), in Lind, and Rush. Mt. x, 24: allra öræl vel esne (= omnium servus); also Rush. J. viii, 34: se de doed synne dræl is synnes 'he who sins is the servant of sin'; peah bræla hwylc hlaforde æthleape and of cristendome to wicinge weorde (Wulfstan 162) 'if any slave escapes from his master and from Christianity becomes a pirate'; it is common in Middle English. Utlaga 'outlaw' (O.N. út-lagi, cf. lagu, below), a common term: pa cwæð man Swegen eorl utlah (Chron. E 1048) 'Earl Sweyn was pronounced an outlaw'; hence the verb ūtlagian: on pis ylcan geare man geutlagode Osgod Clapan (Chron. C 1046) 'in the same year Osgod Clapa was outlawed'.

Other social and legal terms are : $(\hat{b}r\bar{y}d)$ -hlop 'bridal, wedding ' (O.N. brūð-hlaup, with the cognate English word substituted for the first element), in the Gospels, translating nuptiae (Rush. L. xvii, 27, etc.), and in the Chronicle: pe wæron æt pam brydlope æt Norðwic (D 1076) 'who were at the wedding at Norwich'. $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{\bar{y}}$ 'a dwelling' (O.N. $b\bar{y}$ -r): se de hus odde lytel by hæfde in byrgennum (Lind. Mk. v, 3) 'who had a house or little dwelling among the tombs' (= domicilium); M.E. has the word occasionally, e.g. in the Cursor Mundi: sipen he come untill a bij 13290; it survives now only in the compound by-law = townlaw, except in Place-Names, of which it is a common element in the north and east. Cann (O.N. kanna) is a legal term signifying 'cognizance, averment': gif he panne pæt ne mæge gecypan mid rihtre canne (Laws of Hlothhere and Eadric, but a twelfth century MS.) 'if he cannot prove this by a lawful declaration'; mynstres aldor hine cænne in preostes canne (Laws of Wihtred 17) 'the head of a monastery shall clear himself by the same formula of averment as a priest' (twelfth century MS. from a late sixth century original). Grip (O.N. grid) 'truce; peace, protection' is used for a temporary cessation of warfare, as compared with

the native frib, which means a condition of peace in general: he ba bæs cynges worde and his witena grið wið hi gesætte (Chron. E. 1002) 'with the consent of the king and his council he made a truce with them'; we willab wid bam golde grid fæstman (Maldon 35) 'we will make a truce for this gold'; grip also signifies 'security, safety' (in a more localized or personal sense than frib. which is rather 'public safety') guaranteed within certain local or temporal limits, or by the protection of a king or other person: was bar ealne bone winter on bas cynges gride (Chron. E 1048) 'he was there all the winter under the king's protection'; it occurs fairly commonly in M.E., often in the formula grip and frip. Husting 'a court, assembly, tribunal' (O.N. hūs-ðing, apparently as held in a building, compared with a 'thing' in the open) is found in the Laws and the Chronicle: genamon pa pone biscop leaddon hine to heora hustinga (Chron. E 1012) 'took the bishop and led him to their assembly' (i.e. of the Danish army) (MS. F in concilium suum); it is also used in Latin documents for the council of the City of London; it is not used in the wider sense of the national assembly. Middle English has it in Lazamon's Brut: eoden to sumne/hulden muchel husting 2324 (the later version has the French conseil).

Lagu 'LAW' (O.N. log, pl.) is one of the commonest Scandinavian loans in O.E., and one of the most important. It is used for a decree, enactment, for a code of laws or legal system, and for an area under a specific legal system: he niwade pær Cnutes lage (Chron. E 1064) 'he renewed the laws of Cnut'; nu is seo ealde lagu geendod æfter Cristes tocyme (Ælfric's Pastoral Epistles, 380) 'now is the old law ended after Christ's advent'; pær hæfp ane lage earm and se welega (Be Domes Dæge, 163) 'there poor and rich have one law'; he sætte mycel deor-frið and he lægde laga pær-wið (Chron. E 1086) 'he established protection for game and made laws concerning it'; gylde lahslitte inne on Deone lage and wite mid Englum (Laws of Edward and Guthrum) 'pay the fine in the Danelaw and the corresponding fine among the English'.

Öran, pl. (O.N. aurar, O.Swed. öre), and marc (O.N. mark) are used first in the Laws of Alfred and Guthrum, and fairly often later for weights or values of silver or gold; the mark

had eight times the value of the ora; Chadwick (Studies in Anglo-Saxon Institutions, p. 24) gives the value of the ora as 16 pence or 20 pence, according to two different reckonings which seem to have been in use: he . . . astealde ba swide strang gyld . . . pæt wæs viii marc æt ha (Chron. C 1040) 'he levied a heavy tax, which was eight marks per man'; twelf orena mid Denum and xxx scillinga mid Englum (Laws of Alfred and Guthrum, vii) 'twelve oras among the Danes and thirty shillings among the English'; pæt wæs an gylden calic on fif marcon (Chron. D 1058) 'it was a golden cup worth five marks'. Targe. a small shield, is found translating parma, scuto, in the Brussels Gloss, and clipeus in the ninth century; cf. also ic ge-ann Ælmere minen disc-dene mines taregan (Charter in Kemble's Codex Diplomaticus, III, 363) 'I bequeath my small shield to Ælmer my dish-bearer'; the word was supplanted in Middle English by the French targe with [dž], itself borrowed from Germanic. The word wapen-tec 'wapentake' is from O.N. vāpna-tak 'a taking or touching of weapons', but with the native form substituted for the Scandinavian in the first element; it denotes a sub-division of a shire, and under Danish influence it took the place of the 'hundred' in the northern counties, in some of which it still survives: pæt man hæbbe gemot on ælcum wæpentace (Laws of Æthelred, iii, 3) 'that a meeting should be held in each wapentake'. Wrang 'wrong' (O.Norwegian vrang): unrihtdeman, de wendap wrang to rihte and riht to wrange (Wulfstan 203) 'unjust judges, who turn wrong to right and right to wrong'; also 'rough, uneven': to dam feordan porne on wrangan hylle (Codex Diplomaticus, V, 297).

A small group of miscellaneous words completes this section, four from the Lindisfarne Gospels, one from the Durham Ritual, and one from the Battle of Maldon. The last-named gives us ceallian 'to CALL' (O.N. kalla): ongan ceallian pa ofer cald wæter 91 'began to call then across the cold river'; the Durham Ritual has eine 'material' (O.N. efni), and farnian 'to prosper' (O.N. farna-sk): hal me do uel farniga me 'make me prosperous': Lind. has sparrian 'to bar' (O.N. sparra), M.E. sparren, sperren: gesparrado dure ðin (Lind. Mt. vi, 6) 'thy door being shut'; öweng 'band' (O.N. pveng 'thong'), Mt. xxiii, 5 (ðuencgo, = vhilacteria): sang 'bed' (O.N. sæng): song uel bedd Lk.

xxii, 12 (= stratum); eggian 'EGG on', Mk. xv, 11, where ge-eggedon glosses concitaverunt.

What appears to be a very early loan is **eorenan**-stān 'precious stone' (O.N. jarkna-steinn), which is to be found in the earlier verse, such as *Elene*, *Phoenix*, *Ruin*, and even (eorelan-) in *Beowulf*; it is believed to have come to Scandinavia from the East, presumably by the medium of trade; the Chaldean word for 'topaz' is jarkān.

SCANDINAVIAN WORDS OF THE SECOND PERIOD

The second period of Scandinavian loans may be reckoned as extending from 1016 until about 1150-approximately the beginning of the M.E. period. About thirty-three words belong here, of which rather less than a third did not survive this period, while twelve are in common use to-day; crooked, die, knife, haven, hit, root, sale, score, skin, snare, take, they. The following are nouns denoting for the most part commonplace objects: cnif 'KNIFE' (O.N. knif-r) appears first in the eleventh century, e.g. glossing artavus (= cultellus), Wright-Wülcker, I, 329, and in a charm in MS. Cott. Vitellius E xviii: writ pisne circul mid pines cnifes orde (Cockayne, Leechdoms I, 395). The native word was seax. Scinn 'SKIN' (O.N. skinn) and the compound grascinnen 'of grey fur' (O.N. grā-skinn) are in the Chronicle: geafon him myccla geofa . . . on scynnan mid pælle betogen, on mærðerne pyleceon and gra-schynnene and hearma scynnene (Chron. D 1075) 'gave him rich gifts—skins covered with purple, and robes of marten-skins and of grey fur and of ermine'; it does not become common in M.E. before the fourteenth century. Skin replaced O.E. fell and hyd, 'FELL', 'HIDE', which were used for the skins both of men and of animals, but in Modern English have become restricted to the latter. Rot 'ROOT' (O.N. rot) occurs only in the compound rot-fæst 'root-fast', and this not till the twelfth century; pa bepohte he him pæt gif he mihte ben rot-fest on Engleland pæt he mihte habben eal his wille (Chron. E 1127) 'he bethought himself that if he could become established in England he might have all his desire'; but Middle English has it fairly frequently from Orm (c. 1200) onwards. O.E. had wyrt for 'root', the same word as that for

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a plant. Snearu 'SNARE' (O.N. snara) appears as a gloss for laquem ('for birds and hares') in the Brussels Gloss to Aldhelm (p. 429). Lit 'colour, dye' (O.N. litr), now obsolete except in provincial dialects, is quoted by Napier 1 from an early twelfth century manuscript, Cott. Vespasian D XIV, in the British Museum: swa swa se litigere pe lufeð ælces heowes lit 'like the dyer who loves colours of every hue'; the word is next recorded in the thirteenth century (in kides blod he wenten it—i.e. turned it about— do was dor-on an rewh lit Genesis and Exodus 1068); it is not at all common in Middle English. Loft (O.N. lopt) is recorded once in Old English, where it has the sense of 'air' (cf. O.E. lyft): heo ne lip on namum pinge ac on lofte heo stynt (Ælfric's Hexameron) '[the earth] rests on nothing, but stands in the air'; in M.E. it has the meaning of 'upper room, LOFT' (as in O.Norse, as well as 'air'), and is fairly common; it is also used in the phrases bi loft, on loft 'on high, 'ALOFT'. Læst 'a fault, sin' (O.N. lostr) has been noted by Napier in an eleventh century MS. (Bodl. Hatton 114): pæt he ure neoda gecnawe and ure læsta gebete 'that He may know our needs and amend our faults'; it appears again in the late twelfth century, and later in Middle English.

The three verbs diegan 'DIE', hittan 'to come upon, meet with, [HIT]', and tacan 'touch, TAKE', have all survived to modern times. O.N. devja had an O.E. cognate which might have been the ancestor of the M.E. form deien, dezen, but seems to have disappeared early, and the word degen, etc., from the eleventh century onwards is almost certainly from the Scandinavian. The first occurrence of it is in Eadwine's Canterbury Psalter 2 105/13: hredlice dydon 'soon they died' (= cito defecerunt): it is a very common word in Middle English, and eventually took the place of sweltan and steorfan (the latter now has a restricted meaning, STARVE). Hittan (O.N. hitta) is not recorded in its usual modern sense until the fourteenth century; in its single occurrence in Old English it means 'to come upon ' or ' fall upon ': Da com Harold ure cyng on unwær on pa Normenn, and hytte hi begeondan Eoferwic (Chron. D 1066) 'then Harold our king came unexpectedly on the Northmen

¹ Contributions to Old English Lexicography, 1906. ² Ed. Harsley, E.E.T.S., 92.

beyond York' (Chron. E has gemette). Tacan (O.N. taka), which after the M.E. period entirely replaced O.E. niman, is found first in the Chronicle (D) in the year 1072: se kung nam heora scupa and wæpna and manega sceattas and ba menn ealle he toc 'the king seized their ships and weapons and much money, and he took all the men'; three special phrases, adapted from Old Norse, are also found in O.E.: toc to unerrien him (Chron. 1135) 'took to making war upon him' (O.N. taka at); pet land-fole him wið toc (Chron. 1127) 'the people accepted him' (O.N. taka við): cf. also tacan on (O.N. taka á) 'to touch': sona swa bæt ele toc on bæt wæter (MS. C.C.C. Cambridge 303, early twelfth century, p. 1791) 'as soon as the oil touched the water'; the first of these at least survives in Middle English: token to zeien (St. Katherine, 2060) 'began to cry'.

Three adjectives, (ge) crocod 'CROOKED', ragg(ig) 'rough, shaggy', and witter 'wise' were retained in M.E. The first must be derived from $cr\bar{c}k$ (O.N. $kr\bar{c}kr$ 'crook') which is frequently found in M.E., and it is probably owing to chance that the noun has not been recorded in O.E. The adjective is indeed found once only, in MS. C.C.C. Cambridge 303,2 referring to a cripple; it appears next in the late twelfth century Lambeth Homilies. Raggig (with an English suffix) is also from a noun: O.N. rogg 'tuft' (M.E. ragge 'RAG'); it occurs in the Brussels Gloss to Aldhelm, for setosa. Witter (O.N. vitr) is equally rare in O.E., occurring only in the Chronicle: wislice hine be pohte swa he full witter wæs (D 1067) 'prudently bethought himself, being very wise'. This is used also in Middle English, especially in earlier texts.

As in the first period, we have also in the second a number of words denoting things connected with the sea. None of these survived the O.E. period except heefen 'HAVEN' (O.N. hofn): he geaf into Cristes cyrican on Cantware-byri pa hæfenan on Sandwic (Chron. A 1031) 'he gave to Christ Church, Canterbury, the port of Sandwich'. Others are: hā 'thole' (O.N. hā-r) and hamele 'oar-loop' (O.N. hamla), occurring once each in the Chronicle, in the same passage of different manuscripts: man geald xvi scipan æt ælcere hamulan viii marc (Chron. E 1039) ' they paid for 16 ships at 8 marks per man'; pæt wæs viii marc æt ha

See Napier, Contributions to O.E. Lexicography.
 See Björkman, Scandinavian Loan-words, p. 35, n. 2.

(Chron. C 1040) 'that was 8 marks per man'; the Chronicle also has hā-sēta' rower' (O.N. hā-seti), but with English second element: and sceolde man setton oðre eorlas and oðre hasæton to pam scipum (Chron. E 1052). Lip 'a fleet' (O.N. lið) and lipsmann 'sailor' both occur in the Chronicle, the latter being the earlier: Leofric eorl and mæst ealle pa pegenas benorðan Temese and pa liðsmenn on Lunden gecuron Harald to healdes ealles Englalandes (E 1036) 'Earl Leofric and almost all the thanes north of the Thames and the seamen of London chose Harold to be ruler of all England'; pæt lið wende ongean to Sandwic (Chron. D 1052) 'the fleet went again to Sandwich'; the word is not uncommon in the Chronicle (all MSS.). Wranga 'hold of a ship' (O.N. vrong) occurs in Ælf. Voc. 182 (printed as pranga in Wright-Wülcker).

Among words relating to law and social life we find five denoting persons: carl, būtse-carl, hūs-carl, hofding, swegen. Carl corresponds to O.E. ceorl: it is used sometimes alone. sometimes as the first element of a compound, to denote 'man, male' (e.g. carl-cat, carl-fugol); note also carles wæn 'churl's waggon, Charles's wain', of the star, in Cockayne's Leechdoms III 270. Būtse-carl (O.N. būza 'boat') is apparently a regular sailor of the king's own fleet (not a member of the national levy) and corresponds to the hūs-carl of the king's standing army (see Bosworth-Toller, Supplement); both are used in the Chronicle: ealle pa butsecarlas of Hæstingan (C 1052) 'all the seamen from Hastings'; pa hwile com Tostig eorl into Humbran mid lx scipum . . . and pa butse-carlas hine for-socan (D, E 1066); man gerædde þa þæt Ælfgifu Hardacnutes modor sæte on Winceastre mid pæs cynges hus-carlum hyra suna (Chron. E 1036) 'it was decided that Ælfgifu, Harðacnut's mother, should remain in Winchester with the house-carls of the king her son '. Hofding 'leader, ringleader' (O.N. hof-dingi) is used in the second sense in Chron. D 1076: Rawulf eorl and Rogcer eorl wæron hofdingas æt pisan unræde 'the earls Ralph and Roger were ringleaders in this conspiracy'. Swegen (O.N. sveinn' man') is found several times as a personal name before the Conquest, but otherwise is recorded only in the compound batswegen 'boatman, BOATSWAIN' in a charter printed by Earle 1: on Wycinges batswegenes

¹ Handbook to the Land-Charters and other Saxonic Documents, p. 254.

gewittnisse 'on the testimony of Wicing the boatman'. The O.E. cognate is $sw\bar{a}n$.

Fylcian 'to marshal, arrange' (O.N. fylkja) is found in the Chronicle only: per his lip fulcade (C 1066) 'marshalled his fleet there '. Gærsume 'treasure' (O.N. gersumi), which survived for a time in Middle English, occurs a number of times in the Chronicle, e.g. ealle pa betstan gærsaman pe Cnut cyng ahte (D 1035) 'all the best treasures that King Cnut possessed'; sceawode pæt madme-hus and pa gersuman pa his fæder ær gegaderode . . . on golde and on seolfre and on faton and nællan and on gimman (E 1086) 'inspected the treasure-house and the treasures which his father had collected-gold and silver and vessels and silks and gems'. Mal'suit, cause; terms, pay' (O.N. māl) is to be found in the Cleopatra Gloss, and also in the Chronicle: on pyson ylcan geare Eadwerd cing scylode ix scypa of male (Chron. 1086) in this same year King Edward paid off nine ships' (cf. the O.N. phrase skilja af máli, in the same sense); scrp-lið gewende to Legeceastre and dær abiden heora males (C 1055) 'the fleet went to Chester and there waited for their pay'; it is found occasionally in Middle English (māl, mōl), and, in a northern form, it appears in Mod. Eng. blackMAIL. Manslot (O.N. manns-hlutr) has been noted by Napier 1 in MS. C.C.C. Oxford 197 (twelfth century); it seems to signify 'portion of land allotted to the head of a family'; the same MS. gives us sceppe, a measure for wheat or malt (O.N. skeppa, otherwise not recorded until the fifteenth century, when it has the sense of 'basket', and now familiar as 'SKEP'); and scoru 'SCORE' (O.N. skor): v scora scæp 'five score sheep'.

Another trading term is sala 'SALE' (O.N. sala), found in O.E. only in Ælf. Voc. 180, where it is equivalent to uendito.

Two war-terms remain: orrest battle' (O.N. orrosta): hine on orreste ofer-com (Chron. E 1096) overcame him in battle'; tapor-ex a small axe' (O.N. tapar-ex): swa feorr swa mæg an taperex beon geworpen (Thorpe, Diplomatarium 317); and par beo an mann stande on pan scipe and habbe ane taper-ex on his hande (Chron. A 1031) let there be a man standing on the ship with an axe in his hand'. This word is particularly interesting as it is the first certain example of a Slavonic word in English;

¹ Contributions to O.E. Lexicography, p. 43, q.v.

Russian topór, or rather its ancestor, found its way into Scandinavian, and thence into English. The word, however, did not survive in Middle English.

Finally we come to a form in Old English which may be of Scandinavian origin, and if so is the first appearance of a very important loan-word. This is the form pæje 'they, these', possibly identical with the M.E. pei from Scand. peir (see p. 81). Dæge appears in two texts: the Late West Saxon Gospels: sume dæge wæron hædene John xii, 20 'some of them were heathen', and in the prose Salomon and Saturnus 1: ic de secge, fram iiii steorrum. Sage me, hwæt hatton page? (p. 178) 'I tell you, from four stars. Tell me, what are they called?'

These, then, complete the earlier loans from Scandinavian, so far as they are actually recorded, though, as has already been said, it is possible that some of those not occurring in writing before the M.E. period were already in use in the spoken language.

SCANDINAVIAN WORDS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

During the Middle English period the proportion of Scandinavian loan-words used in a specific text varies according to the part of the country from which it comes, the literature and documents of the North, North-West, North-East, and East Midlands having many more Norse and Danish words than those of the South and South Midlands. A certain number of Scandinavian words are found even in the south in early Middle English, for the most part those which have already appeared in Old English; words which drift down to the south as the M.E. period goes on are chiefly, though not exclusively, such as still remain in Modern English.

It has already been indicated that sometimes the meaning of a Scandinavian word becomes attached to the cognate English word, though the Norse word itself is not borrowed; this has happened, for instance, in the case of O.E. eorl (M.E. erl) 'man, warrior', which after the Danish influence began was used for 'chief, ruler of a shire' (O.N. jarl); cf. also O.E. drēam' music, joyful sound, revelry', which acquired its modern meaning of 'vision' through the influence of the related O.N. draumr; the old sense of drēam still remains throughout the M.E. period,

but the word is used in the modern sense in Havelok the Dane in the late thirteenth century: a selkuth drem me dremede nou 1284 'a strange dream I dreamed'. The O.E. words with this significance were swefn, still in use in Chaucer's writings, and mætan vb., mæting n. (M.E. mēte, mēting, -ung).

Scandinavian accidence had very little effect on English grammar. Rarely, Norse inflexions are retained in English, but as an integral part of the word; e.g. the O.N. nominative (masc.) -r in hāgher 'skilful' (O.N. hāg-r), the neuter -t in want (O.N. van-t 'lacking'), or the genitive -ar in the (remodelled) nihter-tale ('night-time', Havelok, Chaucer, etc.), O.N. náttar peli.

Beginning at about 1150 we shall now consider the Scandinavian element in some representative texts from different parts of the country, down to the time of Chaucer.

The Peterborough Chronicle (MS. E of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle) was continued longer than any of the other versions of the Chronicle, the last part, from 1132 onwards, having been written about 1154. This final section, in spite of its place of origin, has very few Scandinavian words which have not appeared before in English. The pronoun baoe 'BOTH' is usually considered to be from O.N. $b\bar{a}\partial ir$, though in some areas at least it may come from O.E. $b\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ ('both' + demonstrative): bathe be nihtes & be daies 1137 'both by night and by day'; hæfde ða baðe togedere pone kinerice on Scotlande & pone eorldom on Englelande 1124 'he had both together the kingdom in Scotland and the earldom in England'. O.N. brenna probably gave rise to M.E. brennen 'burn' (cf. O.E. bærnan, biernan): pa ræueden hi & brendon alle the tunes 1137 'they plundered and burnt all the towns'. Hærnes' brains' (O.W. Scand. hiarni) occurs in: and uurythen to det it gede to be hærnes 1137 'and twisted (a cord) until it went to the brain '. The conjunction and preposition till 'to, TILL', identical with a form which had existed as a native word in early Old English, was introduced from Scandinavian in the twelfth century (O.N. til): dide ælle in prisun til hi iafen up here castles 1137 ' put them all in prison until they gave up their castles'. The word is common in Middle English in northern texts, and survives in Modern Standard English as a conjunction.

One other word which we still use, and whose initial [sk]

gives it a Scandinavian flavour, may be mentioned here as illustrating one special tendency in the M.E. period. This is SCATTER, which first appears in the Chronicle: he todæld it & scattered sotlice 1137 'he spent and scattered it foolishly'; it is actually from an O.E. *scaterian, now SHATTER, and there happens to be no Scandinavian form from which it could be derived. But fairly often there were cognate forms in English and Scandinavian which were distinguished only or mainly by the sc- (sh) of the former compared with the sk- of the latter, and the initial consonants were sometimes interchanged, the Norse consonant-group being used in English. Thus O.E. sciftan 'shift' corresponded to O.N. skifta, and M.E. has both shift and skift. Other such doublets are M.E. schei, skei 'SHY, timid ' (O.E. scēoh, Dan. ský); shēr, skēr 'clear' (O.E. scēr, O.N. sker). Through the existence of such pairs it became natural among bilingual speakers to reconstruct similar pairs by supplying the missing one of the pair, such as skateren by the side of shateren, or (in the other direction) schimeren 'SHIMMER' by the side of skimeren (O.Swed. skimra), or schele beside skele, skile (O.N. skil 'reason, SKILL'). Similarly a Scandinavian initial q might be substituted for the corresponding English 3 (= y-[j]), since the one is often equivalent to the other in cognates. This, it seems, was what happened in give (cf. O.E. gefan, O.N. gefa), which eventually took the place of M.E. zeve, zive, vive.

Two other early Middle English texts which contain very few Scandinavian loan-words are the collection of homilies in MS. Bodley 343,¹ and the History of the Holy Rood-Tree.² The first has only witer (O.N. vitr 'wise, knowing; evident'; see above, p. 71), in an adverbial form with English suffix: witer-lice metezung is alræ mæzene moder 90 'surely moderation is the mother of all virtues'; the latter has the verb dēzen and the noun rōt, both already found in O.E. (see above): for pan de ic nu dezen sceal 14 'because I must now die'; pa roten fordruzode wæron 4 'the roots had dried up'. The vocabulary of both these texts gives a decidedly archaic impression.

The brief Hymns of St. Godric,3 dating from about 1170, give

Ed. Belfour, E.E.T.S., 137.
Ed. Hall, Selections from Early Middle English.

the form burth 'birth' (O.N. burðr); the O.E. form is (ge)byrd. (M.E. and Mod.E. birth is from O.Swed. byrp.)

A group of three alliterative legends in MS. Royal 17 A xxvii and MS. Bodley 34 have a larger number of Norse words, many of them dating from the Old English period. These are the legends of St. Katherine, St. Margaret, and St. Juliana. To judge from their dialect they are from a west midland area. They probably date from before 1200, though the MSS. are early thirteenth century; they might be considered here, or at the beginning of the next section. Of words already dealt with, they have (to give their modern forms) both, die, law, knife (mid kenre pikes pen eni cnif Kath. 1929 (of St. Katherine's wheel) 'with sharper spikes than any knife'), egg vb. (he forgulte him anan burh eggunge of eue Jul. 60 'he sinned through the instigation of Eve'), fellow (weoren as feolahes purh muche freontschipe Jul. 4 'were as fellows through great friendship'; englene feolahe and archanglene freono Bodl. Jul. 49, where Royal has ifere, O.E. gefera, 'fellow of angels and friend of archangels'), haven (lead me . . . to be havene of heale Jul. 42 'lead me to the haven of salvation'), root, take, thrall, call (heo bigon to cleopien ant callen pus to criste Marg. 3); besides grið (schulen gledien igodes grið Marg. 21 'shall be glad in the keeping of God'), and witterlic, which have not survived. Besides these we find the following words: bond 'BOND' (O.N. band) Marg. 13; bon 'prayer, BOON' (O.N. bon, cf. O.E. ben): pæt mi bone mote purh purlen pe weolone Marg. 7 'that my prayer might pierce the sky'; bule 'BULL' (O. East Scand. bule; this occurs already as a Place-Name element in O.E.): helle bule haued ouercomen Jul. 54 'has overcome the bull of hell'; crok' crook; evil device '(O.N. krōkr): wite me from his lab ant wib his crefti crokes Jul. 34 'protect me from his hate and from his cunning devices'; gapen 'gaze, GAPE at' (cf. Swed. gapa): bes keiser bicapede hem Kath. 1255 'this emperor gazed at them'; casten 'CAST' (O.N. kasta): het hire prefter kasten in cwalmhus Kath. 1547 'ordered her afterwards to be cast into the torturehouse'; also akesten' to overcome, cast down': ouercomen ant akasten hare preo cunne fan Marg. 1 'to overcome and cast down

¹ St. Katherine, ed. Einenkel, E.E.T.S., 80; the other two ed. Cockayne, E.E.T.S. 13 and 51. Quotations are from MS. Royal unless otherwise stated.

their three kinds of foes'; lan 'loan, reward' (O.N. lán): to leosan ower swinkes lan Kath. 805 'to lose the reward of your labour'; mēoc' MEEK' (O.N. myúkr): marherete mildest and meidene meokest Marg. 4 'Margaret mildest and meekest of maidens'; wanten 'WANT' (O.N. vanta): neaver of pi wil ne schal pe nawt wontin Jul. 22 'never shall anything you desire be wanting'. These eight words and the eleven first mentioned have all survived to the present day; the following eleven do not now occur in Standard English: grā 'grey; unfriendly, hostile', as noun 'evil spirit' (O.N. grá-r): of pat grisliche gra weren agrisen swiðe Jul. 53 'were much affrighted by that grisly devil'; greipen 'to prepare' (O.N. greiða): he greiðið pe o grome nu alles cunnes pinen Jul. Bodl. 35 'he is preparing for you now in anger all kinds of torture'; hap 'luck, success' (O.N. happ): bisohte him help & hap Kath. 184 'asked for help and success'; but the related HAPPY and HAPPEN are now in use; keiser 'emperor'; liden 'listen': lusted me leoue men ant lided ane hvile Jul. 72 'listen to me, dear men, and hearken for a while'; lire' face, skin' (O.N. hlýr): to-limede hire ant teleac lið ba ant lire Jul. 58' tore her to pieces and rent limbs and skin'; mensk 'grace, honour, dignity' (cf. O.Swed. mænska 'goodness'): te murðe þat hö to meiðhades menske Jul. 18 'the joy that waits on maiden's grace'; nowcin 'hardship, pain' (O.N. naudsyn): ne niht nis ter neauer ne neauer na nowcin Kath. 1683 'there is never night or pain'; sker 'pure, clear' (O.N. skér): pat ne schulen ha beon sker of ure weorre Jul. 50 'that they shall not be quit of our war'; stör 'strong, great' (O.N. stórr): is nu se storliche unstrenget ower streng de Kath. 1269 'is your strength now so greatly enfeebled'; pwert 'across' (O.N. pvert, neut. acc. of pverr); wandrap 'suffering' (O.N. vandræpi 'difficulty'): to wurchen ow al pat wandrepe Jul. 22 'to cause you all that suffering'. Finally there is the O.N. noun-suffix -lēc, -leik (O.N. -leikr) '-ness': pe beoð wiðuten godleic & empti wiðinnen Kath. 838 'which are without goodness and empty within '; ich am gomeful and gled lauerd of pi godlec Marg. 10 'I am joyous and glad, Lord, for Thy goodness'; feirlec and strencee beod his schrudes Marg. 19 'fairness and strength are His garments'.

This group, especially the legend of St. Margaret, has frequent

examples of pairs, usually with little difference in meaning, and often simply for the sake of the alliteration; here we may find Scandinavian and native words side by side: wid gersum ant wid golde; ouercomen ant akasten; to cleopien ant callen; his bral ant his beowe, and so forth.

The alliterative gnomic verses known as the Proverbs of Alfred. a southern text, the manuscript of which dates from before 1200, has very few Scandinavian words: again 'AGAINST' (not necessarily Scandinavian, but probably affected by Scand. influence; the usual native form is azein), fro 'from, FRO' (in to and fro; O.N. frá), ille adv. 'ILL' (O.N. illr, *illa*), **poh** 'THOUGH' (O.N. *bōh); also grip, and late 'to let' (cf. the cognate O.E. latan, M.E. lete): wose lat is wif his master wurben 358 'whoso lets his wife become his master' (this form of the third person singular, however, may be English).

Another text which is also southern but from a definitely south-eastern area, is a prose dialogue (between Reason and Man's Soul) in MS. Stowe 340, published under the title of Vices and Virtues.2 In addition to BOTH, NAY, THRALL, and grip, this document has two words not referred to before: kanunk 'canon' (O.N. kanunkr, from Lat. canonicus): munekes kanunekes, ancres & eremites 35; and skent-ing 'amusement' (O.N. skemta vb.): gleves & skentinges . . . & alle do ping de zeu hier gladien mai 69 'joys and pleasures and all those things that may please you here'.

Nor is there a larger proportion of Norse words in either of the two late twelfth-century collections of sermons known as the Lambeth Homilies 3 and the Trinity Homilies.4 The former, besides CROOKED, BOTH, LAW, LOW, and grip, gives us the two important words skill and wing. The first is from O.N. skil, and in Middle English has the senses of 'skill, discrimination, reason': bet wes al mid muchele skile 59 'that was all with much reason'; also unskile: forzef us ure unskile 65 'forgive us our folly'; wing is from O.N. vengr: a vuhel com flon from houene into orde. her uette feper-home and wenge 81 'a bird came flying from heaven to earth; here he brought plumage and wings'; O.E. generally uses febera.

<sup>Ed. Borgström, Lund, 1908.
Ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 53.</sup>

Ed. Holthausen, E.E.T.S., 89.
 Ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 29.

The Trinity Homilies have even fewer Scandinavian words, the most interesting being several examples of the verb egg, e.g. pat man egged his negebure to done or to speken him harm 13 'that a man eggs on his neighbour to do or speak harm to him'.

The long epic poem known as the Brut, by the Worcestershire poet Lazamon, written in the late twelfth century, and a fine example of Middle English heroic verse, contains over 16,000 long lines, but has altogether less than forty Norse words. Most of them are words which are common generally in Middle English: BOTH (also the native ba, boa, bere, etc.); bonde, and husbonde 'HUSBAND', 'householder' (of æuer elche huse: pat husbonde wunede iii, 285 'from every house in which a husbandman lived'); BOON (pe king uor his fader bone: zette hire hir bone II, 200 'the king at his father's request granted her boon'); brunie 'coat of mail'; grip (often in the formula grip and frip; cf. also æuere he hæhte ælcne mon chireche-grip halden II, 514 'always he bade every man respect the protection of the Church '); KNIFE; DIE; hail adj. ('whole, safe ': O.E. hāl 'WHOLE' is also used by Lazamon; note also Leofue freond was hail / pe over særð drinc hail II, 175 'Dear friend, be in health! The other says Drink hail! 'and cf. wassail); dring 'warrior' (O.N. drengr); gersum; greiden; hit (be eotend smat after biliue: & noht hine ne hutte III, 35 'the giant aimed a blow at him quickly, and did not hit him '), hustinge (cf. above, p. 67); kaiser; LOW (be hehze & ba laze II, 541 'the high and the low'); LAW; OUTLAW; mensk 'honour'; nīðing; ROOT; stör 'strong, great'; SWAIN; TAKE; witer 'wise' (heo was witer heo was wis I, 409 'she was wise and clever').

Besides these there are seven others, less frequently found in M.E., which also occur in the Brut: attlen 'to go, turn; to think, purpose' (O.N. étla; (to the reader) lete we nu pene eotend bilafuen: and athen to pan kinge III, 32 'let us now leave the giant, and turn to the king'); farcost 'a kind of boat; condition, circumstances' (O.N. farkostr): haures he sende: to hirede pes kinges / to witen of his farcost I, 63 'he sent spies to the king's court to learn his position'; skēr 'quit, free' (habbeð iqueðen us scere II, 108 'has pronounced us free'); skenting (per wunede pe king al pene winter a skenting III, 230 'the king

¹ Ed. Madden, London, 3 vols, 1847.

stayed there all the winter amusing himself'); wandrep (mid wandrede & mid sare II, 97' with misery and pain').

It is interesting to note that another version of Lazamon's Brut, made about fifty years later (edited with the earlier MS.), retains most, though not quite all, of these words, and has besides: cast, leg (O.N. leggr; his legges he helede mid hosen of stele II, 463; the earlier version has sconken 'SHANKS'), may 'maiden', they (occasionally), thursday (porisdei, O.N. Dors-; the early version has the native Dunres-dwi).

In contrast to all the southern and midland documents so far discussed, we now turn to a work from the north-east midlands: the Ormulum, written about the year 1200 by Orm, a canonregular of the order of St. Augustine. It consists of paraphrases of and commentaries on the Gospels used at Mass, and contains some 10,000 long lines, in an unrhymed metre imitating the Latin septenarius. This is the first Middle English text to contain any considerable number of Scandinavian words, and it is for this reason, as well as others, of some importance linguistically, if not otherwise. It has about 120 words which may with some certainty be considered Scandinavian, besides others which are doubtful; some (A) survive in Modern Standard English; (B) some may be found all over the country in Middle English; (C) some are limited to the northern and north midland areas in M.E.; (D) some occur in this text only in M.E. (though some of these have survived in modern dialects). The use of the plural pronouns they, their, them, should be especially noted, since these forms eventually spread into all dialects, ousting the native forms. Lists of the most interesting of the Norse words in the Ormulum are given here, with illustrations of the use of some of them; except in list A the spelling is that of Orm (note that a double consonant indicates that the preceding vowel is short).

(A) Most of these have been mentioned earlier as occurring in Old or Early Middle English; the O.N. forms will therefore not be given in all cases: ANGER vb. (O.N. angra); AYE (Orm a33, O.N. ei); AWE (Orm a3he, O.N. agi, cf. O.E. eġe); BAND; BOTH;

 $^{^1}$ Ed. Holt, 1878, 2 vols. See also Brate, Nordische Lehnwörter im Orrmulum. Halle Beiträge, x, pp. 1–80.

BAIT vb. (Orm bezzten, O.N. beita 'to cause to bite'; cf. O.E. bātian); bloom 'flower' (O.N. blōm); boon; booth (O. Swed. bóp' booth, stall'; bound (in the phrases bound for, outward bound; Orm būn 'ready', O.N. búinn); bull; crook; die; egg (on); flit (O.N. flytja); fro; guest (the consonant at least is Scandinavian; O.N. gestr; cf. O.E. ģest); gain (O.N. gegna); hail 'salute'; ill; kindle; knife; law; loft; low; meek; 'raise (O.N. reisa); root; scathe(less) (O.N. skaði 'harm'); scare (Orm skerren vb.; cf. O.N. skjarr 'timid'); skill; skin; sleuth(hound) (Orm slōp 'track'; O.N. slóð); take; they (O.N. þezz, þezzr, þezzm); till; though; thrive; wand; want; wing; wrong.

Examples: patt milhte ohht anngrenn obre I, 12 'that might in any way anger another'; dreding and ashe I, 249' dread and awe': bezz dursten bezztenn menn / Forr æbelike giltte I, 354 'they durst punish men for public guilt'; Forr Nazaræp bitacne pp uss Onn Ennglish broad & blome II, 19 'for Nazareth betokens in English shoot and blossom'; Forr patt tegg turrndenn Godess hus Inntill huccsteres bobe II, 196 'because they turned the House of God into a huckster's booth'; & Abraham wass forr brihht bun To don Drihhtiness wille II, 156 'A. was straightway ready to do the Lord's will'; & ziff he seop pe mann forrdredd. He wile himm skerrenn mare I, 132 'and if he sees the man frightened, he will scare him more'; azz follzhenn sop meocnesses slop I, 111 'ever to follow the path of true meekness'; all swa summ win wass wannt tatt folks II, 146 'when wine was wanting to the people' (the word want has the neuter t of the O.N. adj. van-r, van-t 'lacking'; this is kept in the M.E. verb wanten. which also occurs in Orm).

(B) Words which occur in M.E. in any part of the country: brennen 'burn'; gre33pen 'prepare'; gripp; hazherr 'skilful, dexterous' (O.N. hag-r; note the retention in English of the Scand. -r of the nom. masc. sing.); ke33sere; kidde; lasst 'fault'; kanunnkess 'canon' (O.N. kanunkr, from Lat. canonicus); -le33c; make 'wife, mate' (possibly English, but perhaps from O.N. maki); māl 'speech, payment'; may 'maiden'; orrest 'contest' (recorded in O.E., but not again in M.E.); sēr 'separate'; skemmting; summ 'as' (cf. the dialectal how-some-ever); tīpende; wanndrap; witerr.

Examples: & forrpi patt Sannt Anndrew wass Rihht god and hazherr hunnte II, 114 'because St. Andrew was a good and skilful hunter'; o patt kezzseress time I, 121 'in that emperor's time' (Orm also uses the O.E. form casere; see above, p. 18 and below, p. 107, note); inn orresst zæn pe deofell II, 81 'in strife against the devil'.

(C) Words which are found in northern texts: Addlen 'earn' (O.N. $\varrho \eth la-sk$); bezzsk' harsh' (O.N. beisk-r); biggen 'dwell' (O.N. byggja); brāp 'angry' (O.N. $br\acute{a}p-r$); brodd 'sprout, spike' (O.N. broddr); bulaxe 'axe' (O.Dan. buløx); fere 'power' (O.N. føri); forrgarrt 'destroyed, condemned' (P.P. of forgaren, from O.Swed. gøra 'to do'); gæte(læs) 'without care '(O.N. géta 'heed '); gloppnenn 'to be terrified ' (O.N. glúpna 'to be surprised'); gres 'grass' (Swed. gräs; cf. O.E. græs, M.E. gras); hæpelig 'scornfully', hæping 'scorn' (O.N. háp, hépa 'scorn'); hepen 'hence' (O.N. heðan); hōf 'measure, reason' (O.N. hóf); immess 'variously' (O.N. ýmiss); lesske 'loin' (O.Swed. liuske); lezhe 'hire, pay' (O.N. leiga); lezzk 'play, sport', lezzkenn' to play' (O.N. leikr, leika); leggtenn 'to look for' (O.N. leita: cf. O.E. wlātian); lozhe 'fire' (O.N. logi); merrke 'mark' (O.N. merki; cf. O.E. mearc); minepp 'has in mind' (O.N. minna); nowwt 'oxen' (O.N. naut; cf. O.E. neat, nieten); occ 'and' (O.N. ok); radd 'afraid' (O.N. hræddr); rāp 'counsel' (O.N. ráp); rō 'quiet, peace '(O.N. ró); ros 'praise '(O.N. hrós); sammtale 'agreed' (O.N. saman 'together'); sīt 'pain, illness' (O.N. sýta 'to afflict'); skēt 'quickly' (O.N. skiótr); skiledd 'divided' (O.N. skil 'discernment, discrimination'); skīr 'clean' (O.N. skir; cf. O.E. scīr); sterrne 'star' (O.N. stjarna; cf. O.E. steorre); prinne 'three' (O.N. prinnr); ummbe 'about' (O.N. umb); upp-brixle 'object of reproach' (O.N. briash): hepen 'whence' (O.N. hvapan).

Examples: Itt ise full bitterr & full bezzsc I, 232; lokepp hwære I bigge II, 99 'look where I live'; wipp skarn, wipp hæpinng, ne wipp idell I, 152 'in scorn, contempt or idleness'; heore lezhe birrp hemm beon Rædiz pann itt iss addledd I, 215 'their pay should be ready for them when it is earned'; Onn idell, & wipputenn ned, Alls iff he wollde lezzkenn II, 64 'idly and needlessly, as if he wished to jest'; all swa summ pe nowwt i ploh

II, 199 'like the oxen in the plough'; to brukenn resste & ro wipp himm III, 319 'to enjoy peace and rest with him'; to rosenn off pin hazherrlezzc I, 169 'to boast of thy skill'; newe steorrne zaff he pezzm II, 30 'He gave them a new star'; mid prinne lakess lakedd II, 30 'presented with three gifts'.

(D) Words which occur only in Orm in M.E.: Afell 'strength' (O.N. aft); ammbohht 'maidservant' (O.N. ambótt; originally Celtic; see O.E. ambeht): bennkedd 'provided with benches' (O.Swed. bænker 'bench'); brop-fall 'epilepsy' (O.N. brot-fall); dowwnenn 'to smell' (O.N. daunn n.); ēpenn 'to cry' (O.N. øpa); glüternesse 'gluttony' (O.N. glutr 'extravagance'); nāpe 'grace' (O.N. náp); rowwst 'voice' (O.N. raust); sannen 'to prove' (O.N. sanna); skirrpepp 'rejects' (O.N. skirpa); sowwp 'sheep' (O.N. soupr); trigg 'truth' (O.N. tryggr; cf. O.E. trēowe TRUE); üsell 'wretched' (O.N. úsæll).

Examples: Loc her icc amm ammbohht all bun To follzhenn Godess wille I, 79 'look, here I am, a handmaid ready to follow the will of God'; wrpp prinne bennkess bennkedd II, 175 'supplied with three benches'; recless smec Is god & swet to dowwnenn 'the smoke of incense is good and sweet to smell'; pe rowwst iss herrd off ænne mann Datt epepp puss i wesste I, 320 'the voice is heard of a man that cries thus in the desert'; draf hemm alle samenn ut, & nowwt & sowwpess alle II, 188 'drove them out all together, and all the cattle and sheep'; trigg & trowe gripp and fripp Preface 69 'faithful and true peace and security'.

1200-1250

The most important prose work of Early Middle English is the Ancrene Riwle or Rule of Recluses. It is almost certainly a product of the twelfth century, but although it is extant in a number of manuscripts none of these is earlier than the first quarter of the thirteenth century. The only one which has yet been printed ¹ is of about 1220–1230, and since it is at present uncertain how far the vocabulary of this agrees with the original, it is dealt with here as a thirteenth-century text. It is a work of considerable length, amounting to 215 pages in print. Altogether it contains

¹ Nero A XIV in the British Museum. Ed. Morton, Camden Society, 1853.

something over thirty different Scandinavian words, by no means a high proportion. The work is probably from the West Midlands.

The following words are still current: anger, boon, both, cast, crooked, die, droop, egg (on), fellow, gain, knife, meek, root, skill, thrall, Thursday, (a)thwart, wing, want; besides these we have algate, fiken 'to hurry about', garsum, greip(en), grip, hāwer 'skilful' (O.N. hágr), lāt, -lēc, liten 'to dye' (cf. lit 'colour', earlier in this chapter), mensk, skēr, (for)swiðen 'to burn up', tiðing, witnen 'to witness', wondrep, none of which are peculiar to the Rule, but for the most part common enough in Middle English.

Here are some examples of their use: algate: his abbod bed allegate pet he scholde siggen 314 'his abbot told him that he should by all means confess'; angres-ful: forto beon so angresful berefter nis nout God icweme 370 'to be so anxious concerning it is not pleasing to God'; croked: of crokede & of kene uondunges 102 'of malicious and sharp temptations'; drup(i): make d drupie chere 88 'assumes a drooping air'; eggen: to eggen us to gode 146 'to incite us to good'; fiken: fiked mid te heaved & stinged mid te teile 206 'moves the head about quickly and stings with the tail'; garsum: ne he ne bered no garsum bute gnedeliche his spense 350 'he carries no money but his bare expenses'; hāwur: ofte a ful hawur smið smeoðið a ful woc knif 52 'often a skilful smith forges a weak knife'; lat: of tollinde lokunges ne lates 51 'of enticing looks or behaviour'; liten: pus he lited cruelte mid heowe of rihtwisnesse 268 'he colours cruelty with the tint of goodness'; mëoken 'to make meek': makieð edmod & meokeð our heorte 278 'make your heart humble and meek'; sker: beod al sker of his atter 136' be all free from his venom'; skil 'reason': hwon be olde unwine isiho ure skile slepen 272 'when the old enemy sees our reason asleep'; tibing: no tale ne tidinge of pe world 70; pwert: attri speche is eresie & pwert-over leasunge 82 'poisonous speech is heresy and direct lying'; wing: pe hwingen pet bered ham upward 130' the wings that bear them upward'; witnen: ase holi writ witned 286 'as holy writ testifies'; wandrep: wondrede & weane ine licome & ine soule 156 'misery and woe in body and soul'; wanten: penc ever hwat pe wontep of holinesse 276 'think always how much holiness is wanting in you'.

Among other religious writings of the period may be mentioned two much briefer documents, also from the west: a small collection of homilies in MS. Cotton Vespasian A XXII, and an attractive homiletic allegory known as Sawles Warde, 'the guardianship of the soul', which treats of the house of Man, wherein the Soul is the treasure, Wit is the husband, Will the wayward wife, and the Five Senses are the five servants. This contains the following Scandinavian words: drupnen: iseh ow iffruhte ant somdel drupnin 259 'I saw you in fear and somewhat depressed'; husbonde 'householder'; keiser: zarowe forte demen . . . kinges ant keiseres 261 'ready to judge kings and emperors'; -lec: pe feierlec of hare wlite 261 'the fairness of her face'; lahe 'low'; mēoc; nowcin 'hardship'; weng: to wrten us on euch side under godes wengen 253 'to guard us on each side under the wings of God'; wandrap; wanten; witterlich.

In the Vespasian Homilies we find very few Norse words: gate (not common except in the north): me sceolden anon eter gat zemete 23 'they should meet him presently at the gate'; grip: wið wam we ne muze grið ne sibbe macie 243 'with whom we should make neither truce nor peace'; lage 'law'; wrang-(seht) 'enmity' (O.N. rang-sáttr): twan hlaforde pe wransehte bien samod 241 'two lords who are at enmity with each other'; witer-(lich): witodlice he cumð an ende pisser world 231 'certainly he shall come at the end of this world'.

A decidedly different type of literature is to be found in the Middle English Romances, one of the earliest of which is King Horn,² written apparently in the South-East Midlands in the first half of the thirteenth century. It cannot be said, however, that the Scandinavian element of the vocabulary of this romance, at least, differs much from that of the religious works already discussed. Here are to be found such words as: both, cast, die, fellow, haven, husband (husebonde, not in the sense of 'householder'), ill (adv.), knife, law, low, meek(ness), take, thrall, till, wrong. Slightly less usual are brunie (his brunie he gan lace 717 'he began to lace his mail-shirt'); flitten 'FLIT' (wel sone bute pu flitte 711 'unless you withdrew at once'); gate 'GATE' (suppe com in atte gate 1078 'then came in at the gate', but the

¹ Both ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 34. ² Ed. Hall, Oxford, 1901.

native zate is also used); hitten 'HIT' (wip swerde ihe pe anhitte 712 'I hit at you with a sword'); nevenen 'to name' (wel bruc pu pin evening 206 'may you live up to your name'); niping (panne spak pe gode kung, Iwis he nas no niping 196 'then spoke the good king, certainly he was no villain'); bitaken (bitok him bi lond werie 785 'took upon himself to defend your land'); tiping (site stille, sire king, & herkne bis typyng 806 'sit still, sir king, and hearken to these tidings'); briven: (of all pat were alive Ne mizte per non prive 620).

In the dialogue between The Owl and the Nightingale. a poem of nearly 1,400 lines in rhymed couplets, the Scandinavian element is very small; in fact, the poem has remarkably few foreign words of any kind (see p. 128, on the French element). The forms which do appear are the following: bonde (swa deb moni bonde-man 1577 'as many a husbandman does'); bope 'BOOTH'; cogge 'COG' (O.Dan. kogge); crôked (chures scharpe & wel icroked 1676 'claws sharp and very crooked'); ille (al pat heo spekep hit is him ille 1536 'all that she speaks is amiss to him'); laten 'let'; nai (nay, nay, sede pe niztingale 543); skenten 'to please' (be more ich singe be more I mai, An skente hi mid mine songe 449 'the more I sing the more I may, and please them with my song'), skenting 'amusement'; skëren 'to purify, rid' (par-of pu, wrecche, moste pe skere 1302 'there-of, wretch, you must rid yourself'); skil 'reason, skill'; stor (wundere me bungb wel starc & stor 1473 'it seems to me a great and mighty marvel'); pog'though'.

Two pieces of about 1250, both from the East Midlands, have a higher proportion of Scandinavian words. These are a paraphrase of Genesis and Exodus² in rhymed couplets (4,162 lines) and a Bestiary, partly rhymed, partly alliterative (802 lines). The dialects of these two are very similar. Genesis and Exodus has over sixty distinct Scandinavian words: age 'AWE' (but also the native eige, O.E. ege); ai 'AYE'; anger 'grief, ANGER': and dede hire sorge and anger mune 972 'and did remember her sorrow and grief' (the sense 'anger' is not recorded till the late fourteenth century); biggen 'dwell': And dor he biggede in

Ed. Wells, Boston, 1907.
 MS. C.C.C. Cambridge. Ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 7.
 MS. Arundel 292. Ed. Hall, Selections from Early Middle English.

a caue 1137 'and there he dwelt in a cave'; also bigging 'stay, sojourn, residence; dwelling-place, house': long bigging is here nogt god 718 'it is not good to stay here long'; do was non biging of al egipte lich-les 3163 'then was no house in all Egypt without a corpse'; birpe 'BRTH': de fader luuede esau wel / for firme birde 1484 'the father loved Esau well, as eldest born'; blomen 'to bloom': orest it blomede, and siden bar / de beries ripe 2061 'first it bloomed, and then it bore the berries ripe'; bond 'BOND': And bondes ben leid on Symeon 2230; BOON; BOTH; brennen: an swide ferli sigt dor-bi, / fier brennen on de grene leaf 2777 'a marvellous sight there, fire burning in the green foliage'; callen 'to CALL, summon, name': quor-at calles du me? 3237 'wherefore do you call me?'; Jacob calde dat stede betel 1631 'Jacob called that place Bethel'; also bi-callen 'accuse': dis sonde hem ouertaked rade / And bi-called of harme and scade 2314 'this messenger overtakes them quickly, and accuses them of wrong-doing and injury'; DIE; FELLOW: min mog, min neue and felage 1761 'my kinsman, my nephew and companion'; fer 'sound, whole' (O.N. førr): Al hol and fer he wiste it sen 2812 'afterwards he knew it all whole and sound'; flitten 'FLIT; remove': Nidede dat folk [dat] him fel wel, / And deden him flitten hise ostel 1522 'the people were envious because he prospered, and made him remove his dwelling'; FRO: for God led hem fro helle nigt / to paradises leve ligt 89 'for God led them from the night of hell to the dear light of Paradise ': garen, geren 'to prepare, do, perform, cause' (O.Swed. gora): sone o-morwen he gan him garen 1417 'straightway in the morning he prepared himself'; gestning: at heg tide and at gestning 1507 'at festival and entertainment'; probably glenten 'to move quickly, slip aside; to glance, look, shine, GLINT' (cf. Swed. dial. glänta): ghe glente and thought, migte it nogt ben 1029 'she looked (in astonishment) and thought it might not be'; greipen; gres: trees it for-brac and gres and corn 3049 'trees it destroyed and grass and corn'; grio: wopen of wigte and tol of grio 469 'weapons of war and tools of peace'; heil adj.: Good is, quað Joseph, to dremen of win, / Heilnesse an blisse is ðer-in 2068 'It is good, said Joseph, to dream of wine; health and happiness are therein'; heoen, hweoen, beoen 'hence, whence, thence'; hilen 'hide, cover' (O.N. hylja): It mai

ben hoten heuene-Rof, / It hiled al dis werldes drof 102 'it may be called the roof of heaven; it covers all the compass of this world'; ille adj. and adv.: And quo-so wile cursing maken, / Ille cursing sal taken 4038 'and who-so utters a curse, an evil curse shall fall upon him'; perhaps kide 'KID' (Dan. kid): two kides he fette and brogt es hire 1535 'two kids he fetched and brought them to her'; kippen 'to seize' (O.N. kippa): so manige dead for kipte 3164 'so many Death seized there'; LAW; laten 'let'; lit 'colour'; lote 'face, cheer'; merke 'mark, sign'; mol 'speech' (O.N. mál): des frenkis men o france moal / it nennen un iur natural 81 'these Frenchmen in the speech of France call it un jour naturel'; gate 'way': sore he gunen for-dredde ben./for ne cuben ne gate flen 3224 'they began to be much afraid, for they could in no way escape'; niðing 'villain', but here 'villainy, meanness'; oc 'also'; or 'before'; sperren 'to close, bar'; ransaken 'to search, RANSACK' (O.N. rann-saka 'to search a house'): he gan hem ransaken on and on 2323 'he began to search them one by one'; rapen 'hasten'; scabe: He ben cumen to mirie dale, / An dere he werken schade and bale, 850 'they are come to a pleasant valley, and there they do harm and injury '; skil 'reason, skill ': a spirit ful of wit and schil 203 'of wisdom and reason'; seck 'sack'; sister; skie 'cloud' (sky): Bi-foren hem fleg an skige brigt 3255 'before them flew a bright cloud'; tinen 'to lose' (O.N. týna): du tines vn-ended blisce 3518' you will lose unending bliss ' (cf. dial. tyne); TAKE; lowe 'flame': and al-so hege de lowe sal gon, / So de flod flet de dunes on 643 'and the flame shall rise as high as the flood stood on the mountains'; twinne 'two' (TWIN) (O.N. tvinnr): Heft haued he mad her vii alter / And on ilc brend eft twin der 402 'again he has made here seven altars, and burnt on each two beasts'; THOUGH; THRALL; owert 'perverse': his herte do wurd dwert and hard 3099 'his heart became perverse and hard'; uggen 'to fear', ugli 'horrible, fearful' (UGLY) (O.N. uggr' fear', ugga' be afraid'): To cam on him ugging and frigt 950 'then fear and dread came upon him'; And wurd sone an uglike snake 2805 'and became at once a horrible snake'; the word ugge 'fear' is recorded first in English in the prose piece entitled A Lovesong to our Lord, of the early part of the twelfth century (Morris, E.E.T.S., 34,

p. 209); the modern sense 'repulsive in appearance' is not found until the fourteenth century, but it is not always easy then to distinguish this sense from that of 'frightful, terrible, etc.'; wanten 'to be wanting'; will 'astray' (O.N. villr): wimman wið childe, one and sori, / In de diserd, will and weri 975 (of Hagar and Ishmael) 'woman and child, alone and sad, in the desert wandering and weary'; window (O.N. vindauga, lit. 'wind-eye') 1: Fowerti dais after dis / Arches windoge undon it is 602' forty days after this the window of the ark is undone'; witterlich; wand' wand'.

The Bestiary, a translation of a Latin Physiologus, is an account of the habits and character of a number of animals, birds, etc., with allegorical interpretations. The following are the Scandinavian words to be found in it: AYE; ande 'breath' (O.N. andi); BOON; BOTH; brennen; bro 'eyebrow' (O.N. brá, cf. O.E. brēow): he is blac so bro of qual 194 (of the panther) 'it is black as brow of whale'; CALL; deri 'bold' (O.N. djarfr): derflike wiðuten dred 313 'bravely, without fear'; fēzen 'to cleanse' (O.N. fæggja): feg de dus of di brest filde 160 'cleanse yourself thus of the poison of your heart'; fiken 'to fidget, fuss and hurry about' (O.N. fikia-sk); FRO; GAPE; gres; heil 'sound'; ILL; ket 'flesh' (O.N. kiot): he tired on his ket 336 'he tears at its flesh '; LAW; leið (O.N. leiðr, cf. O.E. $l\bar{a}b$): seftes . . . leiðe & lodlike 356 'creatures hideous and loathly '; oc 'also'; or 'before'; rapelike 'hastily'; reisen 'rouse, RAISE'; rennen 'run'; scaöe: sipes ge sinked & scade dus werked 447 'ships she sinks, and thus does harm'; skenting 'amusement'; (un)skil; skie 'SKY': durh skies sixe and seuene 50 'through six and seven skies' (cf. the earlier meaning, 'cloud', in Genesis and Exodus, above; this sense is found as late as Skelton); swiden 'to burn; to light up' (O.N. sviba); TAKE; TILL; twinne 'two'; ōeōen; THOUGH; wille 'astray'; wrong 'twisted' (WRONG).

1250-1300

To the second half of the thirteenth century may probably be ascribed the Romance of *Havelok the Dane*.² This has associations

¹ The Ancrene Riwle, referred to above, uses *purle*, eie-purle, for window, but the Titus MS. of this text, which has many northern features, has windohe.

² Ed. Skeat and Sisam, Oxford, 1923.

with Lincoln and Grimsby, and the large number of Norse and Danish words to be found in it certainly indicates an area in which Scandinavian influence was strong. The poem, which was written for popular reading or recitation, has 3,000 lines in rhyming couplets.

The vocabulary not infrequently has the cognate English as well as a Norse form, but sometimes the English forms are due to the scribe and not to the author; this is obviously the case in some of the rhymes, for instance in lines 360–1, where the MS. rhymes bope-rede (O.E. rādan 'advise'), impossible unless it is assumed that the original had the form rōpe (O.N. ráða); again, in lines 1397–8¹ occurs the rhyme name—Rauen (a personal name, Hugh Raven), and in 2528–9 cauen—name, which apparently disguise a form naven (O.N. nafn 'name'), not elsewhere recorded in M.E., but corresponding to the verb nevenen 'to name'.

It is unnecessary to quote all the Scandinavian words (of which there are over 120) in this text. Many of them are such as occur generally in Middle English. The following list gives some of the less common and more interesting: asken 'ashes' (O.N. ask-; cf. the native æsc 'ASH') 2841; AWE; beiten: panne men doth pe bere beyte 1840 'when men bait the bear'; perhaps BIG: Bernard stirt [= started] up, pat was ful big 1774; bleike 'pale' (O.N. bleik-r; the text has also the native blake): pat weren for hunger grene and bleike 470; bloute 1910 'soft, pulpy' (O.N. blautr): he maden here backes al-so bloute 1910 (by beating them) 'they made their backs as soft'; bone 'equipped' (O.N. bóenn, p.p. of bóa 'to prepare'); bulder-(stone) 'BOULDER'; CLUB (O.N. klubba): he dredden him so pef doth clubbe 2289 'they dreaded him as a thief does a club'; coupe 'buy, pay for '(O.N. kaupa; like O.E. cēapian, this is ultimately Latin); crus 'fierce' (O.N. krús): And drive hem ut, pei he weren crus, / So dogges ut of milne-hus 1966 'drove them out, though they were fierce, like dogs out of a mill-house'; frest 'delay' (O.N. frest); frie 'to blame' (O.N. frija); dreng 'a free tenant' (already in O.E., = 'warrior'); garen 'to prepare; to cause': per-on he garte pe erl suere; gate 'way' 2: Thou canst [= knowest] ful wel pe rihte gate / To

¹ See note in edition cited above.

² Gate is, of course, common in northern towns in the sense of "street".

Lincolne 846; genge 'retinue, household' (O.N. gengi); geten 'to GET' (O.N. geta; cf. the English -getan (only in compounds in O.E.), M.E. zeten, which would have given Mod. E. *yet); geten 'to watch, guard' (O.N. géta): pat he sholde on ilke wise / Denemark yeme and gete so 2960 'that he should in the same way guard and look after Denmark'; goulen 'to scream' (O.N. gaula): hwi grete ye and goulen nou? 454 'why do you cry and scream?'; kaske 'vigorous' (O.N. kask-r): pe laddes were kaske and teyte 1841 'the young men were vigorous and active'; keuel'a gag'(O.N. kefli); KINDLE; kippen'to seize'; kirke 'church' (O.N. kirkia; in northern areas this cannot always be distinguished from the northern form of O.E. cirice; the latter, however, would be chirche in Havelok); kiste 'chest'; lenge 'prolong' (O.N. lengja); leyk, leyken 'play'; liften 'to LIFT' (O.N. lypta): pat mouhte it liften to his kne 1028; loupe 'to run, rush': and bigan til him to loupe 1801 (O.N. laupa; cf. O.E. hlēapan, M.E. lēpe, which also occurs in Havelok); lurken 'to lurk': he made hem lurken and crepen in wros 68 'he made them lurk in hiding, and creep into holes'; mirk 'MIRK': Jesu Crist, that makede mone / On pe mirke niht to shine 404; rig 'back' (O.N. hrygg-r; cf. the native ridge): And caste brinie up-on his rig 1775 'cast his shirt of mail upon his back'; rippe 'basket' (O.N. hrip); rowte 'to roar' (O.N. rauta); SCABBED (Dan. skab); SEEM; serk 'shirt' (O.N. serk-r); span-(new) (O.N. span-nýr): and bouhte him clopes, al span-newe 968; STACK (O.N. stakk-r); sternes 'stars'; stith 'anvil' (O.N. steòn; cf. Mod. E. stithy): And beten on him so doth pe smith / With pe hamer on pe stith 1877; texte 'active' (O.N. teitr); tinte 'lost': pat he ne tinte no catel 2023; parne 'to lose' (O.N. parfna); pei 'THEY' (beside the native he 'they'); perne 'serving-maid' (O.N. perna); 'three' (cf. twinne 'two' in Gen. and Exod.); to-riven 'to rend' (O.N. rífa); wayke 'weak' (O.N. veik-r; O.E. wāc becomes M.E. $w\bar{o}k$); wesseylen 'to drink healths'; wint 'courageous and active' (O.N. vig-t, with neuter ending): wro 'corner' (O.N. *wrá), etc., etc.

As an example of a different and less 'popular' type of romance we may take Floris and Blauncheflur, translated in the south

¹ Ed. Lumby, E.E.T.S., 14.

or central East Midlands from a French version of the story. Close adherence to the French original perhaps accounts for the small Scandinavian element and the large proportion of French words. Of the former we have: brenne, caste, felawe, gate (also zate), gersume, gestning (he hopede come to pat gesninge 82 'he hoped to come to that entertainment'), hail 'healthdrinking' (He let fulle a cupe of win, / 'Dame,' he sede, 'bis hail is pin' 56 'he had a cup filled with wine, "Lady," he said, "I drink to your health""), hauene, may 'maiden' (Dus herinne pis oper day / Sat blauncheflur, pat faire may 46), marc, store 'strong' (Fram flore into flore / pe strimes urnep store 228 (of the system of hot-water pipes in the palace at Babylon) 'from floor to floor the streams flow strongly'), tiping. In at least one case (here shown by the rhyme) the scribe has replaced a Scandinavian word by an English one: po floriz iherde his lemman nempne / So blisful him puzte pilke steuene 53 'when Floris heard his love named, that voice seemed blissful to him', where we should read neuene for nempne.

From quite a different part of the country—Gloucestershire comes a rhymed history of England, which goes by the name of Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle. This was for the most part composed towards the end of the thirteenth century, and the oldest manuscript now extant is of the early fourteenth century. The Scandinavian element is inconsiderable. The following words occur: HIT: BOON: BOTH: brenne: CAST: DIE: FELLOW: fyki (' to move quickly, fidget'); greipen; HAVEN; HAIL (dronk hir heil 2521; also washaul 2514); HUSBAND (in the sense of 'husbandman'); LOW; MARK (amount of money); MEEK; ROOT; SKULL (its earliest appearance; cf. Swed. dial. skulle); SKULK (cf. Norw. dial. skulka); skere 'to exculpate'; SLY; SWAIN; TAKE; THRALL; WING; won 'provision, store' (O.N.ván). It will be observed that very few are now obsolete. Later manuscripts of this Chronicle introduce a few more Norse words: atwynne 'in two' 3333 (where A-the earliest MS.-has atuo); blome 'to BLOOM' (A: blowe); bole 'BULL' 2497; burpe 'birth'; cally 'to CALL' (A: clupie, O.E. cleopian); on loft 'ALOFT' (A: on luft); or 'before' (A: er); sistre(n) 'sister' (A: sostren); prof 'THROVE' (A: peu).

¹ Rolls Series.

Similarly, in the Southern Legend Collection 1 in MS. Laud 108, written also in the South-West Midlands, the first thousand lines show only eleven Scandinavian words; these are of the same character as those in Robert of Gloucester: BOON, BOTH, brenne, CAST, DIE, FELLOW, greipen, LAW, MARK, SKIN, TAKE.

The South Midland poetical version of the story of Iacob and Iosep,2 in addition to CAST, DIE, LAW, skere (zif ze of Egipte lond wollep faren skere 438 'if you want to go out of the land of Egypt unhindered'), TAKE (he toc his beuerene hat 517 'he took his beaver hat'), WRONG (in pe prison lip mid ful muche wronge 274), has the pronoun pei 'THEY' five times (but the usual southern $h\bar{i}$ fifty-six times, according to the editor), and the noun brunie 'shirt of mail' 407.

FOURTEENTH AND EARLY FIFTEENTH CENTURIES

To illustrate the Scandinavian element in the vocabulary of this period, we shall make a somewhat arbitrary choice among a very large number of writings in great variety. The following come from different parts of the country, and represent various types of literature: the Cursor Mundi, Richard Rolle (Epistles and Lyrics), two of the poems of the Ireland Manuscript (The Anturs of Arther, and Sir Amadace), Robert of Brunne's Handlyng Synne, the Prose Psalter of MS. Brit. Mus. Additional 17376, the Azenbite of Inunt, the Festial of John Mirk, the poems of William Herebert, and finally some London documents.

The first-named, a chronicle of the world, beginning with the Creation, was written in the North of England, probably in the first quarter of the fourteenth century. The oldest and fullest version (that in MS. Cotton Vespasian A III) & consists of nearly The following Norse words occur in the first 30,000 lines. thousand lines: AYE, and 'breath' (pis aand pat men draws oft / Betakens wynd pat blaws o loft 531 'this breath that men constantly draw betokens the wind that blows aloft'); at 'that' relat. pron. and conj. (to pis palais at was sua rike 415 'to this palace which was so splendid'); AWE; perhaps barn 'bairn' (par sal ze find sumkin dedis / pat iesus did in hys barn-hedis 166

¹ Ed. Horstmann, E.E.T.S., 87. ² Ed. Miller, E.E.T.S. 7 vols.

² Ed. Napier, Oxford.

'there shall you find certain deeds that Jesus did in His childhood'); bath 'both'; BIRTH; brāp(li) 'violently' (O.N. bráb-r); CALL; CAST; CROOK (For of alle als scheus pe bok / Mast he cuth o crafte and crok 700 ' for as the book shows he knew most of all of craft and cunning'); dil 'to hide' (O.N. dylja; How Iuus wit per gret vnschill / Wend his vprisyng to dill 202 'how the Jews in their folly thought to conceal His resurrection'); fer 'sound' (How he heled on al unfere 187 'how He healed all the sick'); fil 'villain'; fro; (a)GAIN; garen; gate (nan-gat 'in no way '421); GET (o me seruis sal he non aette 460 'of me he shall get no service'); graip(li) 'with skilful design'; gress; grip (pas oper gastes pat fell him with / pe quilk for-sok godds grith 492 'those other spirits that fell with him, that forsook the peace of God'); hap 'success'; ILL; laire 'clay' (O.N. leir; O watur his blod, his fless o leir, / His hete of fir, hijs and of air 519 (of the making of man) 'of water his blood, his flesh of clay, his warmth of fire, his breath of air '); LAW; LOW; MEEK; mensk vb. 'to honour'; mere; myn 'to think' (In hir wirschip wald i bigyn / A lastand ware apon to myn 112 'in her honour I would begin to think upon an enduring work'); neuen 'to name'; RAISE; renn 'to run'; ROOT; samer-tale 'harmonious' (pe bestes self war samer-tale 683): ser 'many, various' (sanges sere of selcuth rime, / Inglis, frankys and latine 23 'many songs of rare rhyme, English, French, and Latin'); SKILL; SLY; stad 'established'; stern 'star' (be firmament, pat is to say, / pe li[f]t wit sterns, gret and smal); TAKE; TILL 'to'; THEY-THEIR-THEM; tint 'lost'; thrin 'three' (be elementz first in dais thrin 353, of the Creation); twin 'two' (he fordestend tuin creature / to serve him in pat hali ture 417; twins in the modern sense are tuinlinges 3445); powf 'though'; thethen; tīt 'quickly'; prā 'bold, severe, cruel' (O.N. prá-r' obstinate'); wān 'provision quantity'; want; will 'astray'; witer (Ne be nedder was noght bittur ban / bowf he was ever wittur 698, of the serpent in Paradise); WRONG.

This long list by no means exhausts the Norse words used in the *Cursor Mundi*. The following list gives some of the more interesting to be found in the remaining 29,000 lines of the poem: bi 'town', aghtel 'to intend' (dial. ettle), bait 'food', brixel 'strife', busk 'prepare' (O.N. búa-sk), carp 'boast, talk', derf,

dring 'man', gleg 'quick, sharp', hething 'scorn', kist 'chest', loft 'garret, loft', māl 'payment', nightertale, nocin 'hardship' (cf. St. Margaret, above), ransak, rō 'rest', rōs 'praise', serk 'shirt'; sister, sīt 'sorrow', sky, slaughter, snaip 'to blame, disgrace', stepi 'stithy', thorsday, thuert, waike 'weak', wand. It will be noticed that many of these are now obsolete, or survive only in local dialects.

The romance of The Anturs of Arther at the Tarne Wathelune 1 has, on account of local references, been assigned to the neighbourhood of Carlisle. The poem contains 715 lines, and there is a fairly large number of Scandinavian words. Many of these are common in Middle English generally (though not always in precisely these forms): kest 'cast', grythe, loe 'low', lauyst 'lowest', bigg 'dwell, build', callus 'calls', droup, brenne, gersum, lates 'looks, behaviour', mekenes, tithing, dee 'die', wrang, gete, witturly, wontut 'wanted'. Less widespread are the pronoun thay, the adverbs hethun and quethun 'whence', besides agaynes 'AGAINST', bonk 'bank', barn 'child', bounn 'ready', busk 'prepare, equip', carp 'talk', coup 'buy, pay for', derfly 'boldly', gayne 'ready, direct', gate 'way', ger 'make, cause', gēte' guard', graip' ready', hillyng' covering', lain 'deny', laykes 'games', laythe 'loathsome' (cf. native lāð, lōð), myn 'remember', merke 'mark, sign', myrke 'dark', radd 'afraid', raiken 'go, move quickly', scogh 'wood' (O.N. skógr), site 'sorrow', skriken 'shriek' (the Modern English word is from O.E. sċrīcan), snaype(ly) 'keenly, painfully', thro(li) 'earnestly', tynte 'lost', waythe 'hunting' (O.N. veið-r), wöthe 'danger' (O.N. váði).

Examples of use: barn: of qwom that blisfulle barne in Bedelem was born xviii; busk: his basnet was busket ful bene xxx 'his bacinet was properly arrayed'; bigg: By a lauryel ho lay, vndur a lefe sale, / Of box and of barbere, byggyt ful bene vi 'by a laurel she lay, under a pleasant arbour, carefully constructed of box and barberry'; carp: to carpe with zour qwene xi; droup: Thay questun, thay quellun, / By frythun, by fellun, / The dere in the dellun / Thay droupen and daren iv 'they hunt and kill, by woods and hills, the deer in the dells they cower and

¹ Ed Robson, Three Early English Metrical Romances. Camden Society, 1842. Ref. stanza. The MS. is of the fifteenth century.

lurk'; gate: And thus Dame Gaynour the gode, gayli ho glidus / The gatys with Syr Gawan iii; ger: Fro cite I schalle sayntes ger seke sone for thi sake xvii 'from the city I shall have saints visited (i.e. pilgrimages made) soon for thy sake '; gete: gete the wele, Syr Gawan, the boldest of Bretan xxiii 'guard thee well, Sir Gawain, the boldest of Britain': grait: Sur Gawan. graythist on grene i : myn: mun the with massus xviii : myrke : The day wex as dyrke [= dark] / As the mydnyzte myrke vi; raiken: And rayket to hit in a res, for he was nevyr radde ix 'and went to it [i.e. the ghost] in a rush, for he was never afraid ': scogh: Alle dyrkyns the dere, in the dym scoghes v'all the deer hide in the dim woods'; sit: 'say me,' quod Gaynour, 'quat myzte saue the from site' xvii "tell me", said Guinevere, "what might save thee from sorrow"; skriken: The bryddus in the boes . . . Thay skryken in the scoes x 'the birds in the boughs, they shriek in the forests'; snaype: For the snyterand snaue that snaypely hom snellus vii 'for the driving snow, that painfully whirls them on'; waythe: ze, we ar in wudlond . . . and walkes on owre wayth xxxiv 'yes, we are in the woodland, and go on our hunting'; woth: schalle be woundut, iwis, wothelik xxiv 'shall certainly be sorely wounded'.

The story of Sir Amadace, which is extant in the same manuscript, is probably from the North-West Midlands. This poem is a little longer than the last, and the number of Scandinavian words is rather less. The more usual are: agavn. awe, bothe, bowne, dee 'die', felau, (thus)gate 'in this way', gere 'cause', gete 'get', happe 'success', ille, kesten, meke 'meek', skille (and vnskille), take, thay, etc., tille, tithing, wan, wone 'supposition, thought'. Besides these we find: bain 'obedient, ready' (O.N. beinn): And have servandis fulle bayne xlvii; gere 'GEAR, equipment, array' (O.N. gørı): He come in als gay gere, / Ryzte as he an angelle were lvi; hething 'contempt': Bothe in hething and in scorne ii; kist 'chest' (O.N. kista; cf. O.E. cest, from which the modern form is derived): kistes and cofurs bothe ther stode xliv; lain 'to deny': Sertan is nozte to layne xlvii 'certainly it is not to be denied'; lith 'listen, hear': Now listun and ze may lithe xxiii; naut 'oxen': Hors and naute, shepe and squyne [= swine] xv; stad 'standing, established': In stid quere pou art stadde xlii; sum

'as': with tunge sum I the telle lxix; (als)tite 'quickly': hasteli and alstite lvi; will 'wild, bewildered, astray': Quen folus may walke full wille of wone xxxiv 'when fools may walk all wild of wit'.

One of the most important writers of the North Midlands in the fourteenth century was Richard Rolle, hermit and mystic, most of whose works survive in many manuscripts, some of which have not retained the dialectal features of the originals. To illustrate this writer's vocabulary, a number of lyrics and three epistles (Form of Living, Ego Dormio, and Commandment of Love) in MS. Cambridge Dd v, 64 have been chosen. In these documents the Scandinavian element is fairly large; the following words occur: agaynes, ay, band, barn 'child', bath 'both', bygge, cal, egg vb., fā 'few' (O.N. $f\bar{a}r$), felaw, fra 'from', gar 'make', gate, (for)gete, gildre 'snare' (O.N. gildra), hethyng, hethen 'hence', ill, kindle, law, layne 'deny, conceal', lift, meke, myrke, neven 'name', radde 'afraid', raise, renne, rōsen 'to glorify', rote, seme 'seem', ser, skylle, sterne 'star', take, till 'to', thai thayr thaim, tin 'lose', tyte 'quickly, ugly 'horrible, hideous', waik 'weak', wandreth 'misery', wyterly 'certainly'.

Examples: like til barnes, pat lufes mare an appel pan a castel 41 'like children, who prefer an apple to a castle'; when he egges vs till ouremykel ees & rest of body 13 'when he incites us to over-much ease and rest of body'; for pai sal be brether & felaws with awngels & haly men 20 'they shall be brothers and fellows of angels and holy men'; pe whylk myght gar all men wonder on pam 'which might make all men wonder at them'; pis gylder layes oure enmy to take vs with 6; pat pe fyre of hys lufe kyndell oure hert 9 'that the fire of His love may kindle our heart'; ne pai may lyft pair will to zerne pe lofe of godd 4 'nor may they lift their will to desire the love of God'; meke men and wymen, Criste downes 51 'meek men and women, Christ's doves'; to neven his name with-outen reverence 22; vggly ymages for to make vs radde 15; thorow pe ioy of a raysed thoght 46 'through the joy of an exalted thought'; all pat roses par awne state before all other 62 'all who exalt their own state before all others'; many er war [= worse] pan pai seme, & many er

¹ Ed. Horstmann, Richard Rolle of Hampole, London, 1895. Ref. page.

better pan pai seme 18; sere men in erth has sere gyftes 29; if pai had knawne skyll and halden discrecion 6; in fyrst degre er men lickend to pe sternes 34; we have a lange way till heven 6 'we have a long road to heaven'; For he pat hase noght Ihesu Criste, he tynes all pat he has 4; pai pat er wys, & wil not tyte trow till all spirites 12 'those that are wise, and will not quickly believe in all spirits'; pe vgly felyschip of pe devels 37; pat pai er sa wayke with-in pair hert 3.

The next author is from the West Midlands: John Mirk, a canon-regular of Lilleshall, in North-East Shropshire. His writings date from about, or very shortly after, 1400. Festial, his most important work, is a collection of sermons for the Church's year, of a popular character, and containing many illustrative tales as well as legends of the Saints. He employs rather fewer Scandinavian words than Rolle, and most of those which occur are still in use. Here is the list: agaynys 'AGAINST' (but usually the native azeynys, etc.); (al)gate 'always' (also allway); anger 'ANGER' (not 'grief'): he snorted at he nose, and frope at pe mowth for angur 53 (also anangren 'to anger'); ask 'ash': brent hom all to cold colys and askes 146 (also Aske Wanusday); atwyn'in two'; AWE; AYE; bone 'BOON'; BOND; bond 'servant'; bonke 'bank' (the modern form is from the eastern type); BOTH; bobe 'BOOTH' (in the compound toll-bobe 'tax-collector's office'); brenne; BULL; burthe 'birth'; BIG: mony a byge and a strong I have overcom 201; CALL: CAST; croke, croket 'CROOKED'; DIE; drowpe 'DROOP, be cheerless': he pat wyll take bys to hert, he schall have bettyr lust . . . to drowpe pen to daunce 65; EGG: eggys and chese byn molton flesche 84; felaw 'FELLOW'; frope 'FROTH' (O.N. froda), also vb.; hys mowhe frobys 84; GET; graybe adj.: suche prestys as con not make a graype vnswar 124 'such priests as cannot make a ready answer'; gresse (also the English gras 'GRASS'); HAPPEN; HAIL!; hepen 'hence'; hylling: to have deth in mynde and pe hyllyng of hure grave 291 'to have death in mind and the covering of their grave '; hytten 'HIT'; kake 'CAKE': our old fadres wolden ete pes dayes kakes bakyn yn pe ymbres 254 'our forefathers would eat on those days cakes baked in the embers'; KNIFE; LAW; LEG; lousen 'to loose': he lowsyd monkynd out of hys bondys; MEEK; mynnyng 'remembrance'; NAY;

raggyd: thow hast by clope raggyd 113 'you have your clothing ragged'; rapen 'hasten'; rauting 'making a noise': in rawtyng, in reuelyng 63 'in riot, in revelling'; RAISE; ren 'run'; RANSACK; ROOT; scolle 'skull'; sekkes (also the native SACK); scrapen 'SCRAPE' (O.N. skrapa; cf. the native M.E. schrapen); SEEM; skath 'injury'; skerre 'rock, rocky island': brunguth pe schip to zondyr skerre fast by 206; SKILL; SKIN; sparren 'to shut, bar'; SISTER; TAKE; TILL prep.; pay, pei, etc. (but Gen. and Dat. hore, hure, hom); THRALL; THURSday: WANT: WING.

The South Lincolnshire writer, Robert of Brunne, of the first half of the fourteenth century, makes surprisingly little use of Scandinavian forms. The first thousand lines of his chief work, the Handlyng Synne,1 or Treatise on Sin, has only eighteen different Norse words. A number of these occur in rhyme, rather as though it was for this purpose he employed them. This is the list: (a) beyted 'enticed'; BOTH; brenne; CAST; frastys (O.N. freista 'try, tempt'); felaushepe; gest 'GUEST'; hansel 'gift; first appearance or occurrence' (O.N. hand-sal); LAW; late 'let'; layp; lowe 'fire'; RAISE; SKILL; TAKE; (as)tyte 'quickly'; THEY (but gen. and dat. hem, here); weyue 'WAIVE, turn aside'.

Another West Midland writer, but from an area farther south than that of Mirk, is William Herebert, a Franciscan friar of Hereford, who died in 1333, and was thus a contemporary of Robert of Brunne. Some examples of his verse translations of Latin hymns are extant.² The Scandinavian words in these are but few, the list containing only eleven; of these only two are now obsolete: BOON, BOTH, CALL, CROOK ('evil device'), DIE, grith, LAW, MEEK, ROOT, TAKE, sker (of sunne make ous sker 24 'make us free from sin').

Turning eastwards again we come to the mid-fourteenth century Prose Psalter, 3 probably from the southern part of the Central Midlands. Here again the Scandinavian element is not large, and all but a few of the words still survive in Standard English, the exceptions being biggen 'to build', brenne, gress,

¹ Ed. Furnivall, E.E.T.S., 119, 123.

Ed. Carleton Brown, Religious Lyrics of the Fourteenth Century, pp. 15-29.
 Ed. Bülbring, E.E.T.S., 97. Ref. psalm and verse.

hillen 'conceal', lowe 'fire'. Besides these, this text has: bull, cast, crooked, die, fellow, haven, kid, law, leg, lift, low, meek, root, rotten, skin, slaughter, take, thrall, wing.

Examples: Bot sif your Lord have bigged be hous, in vain hy travaileden pat it sett 126/1 'unless the Lord has built the house, in vain have they worked that set it up'; as a poudre, pat pe wynde castep fram pe face of perpe 1/5 'like dust that the wind casts from the face of the earth'; And hij ioiden, for pe flodes were still: and God lad hem to be haven of her wille 106/29; pou for-zef pe wikednes of py folk, and hilled alle her synzes 84/2 'Thou didst forgive the wickedness of Thy people and conceal all their sins'; y ne shal nouzt taken chalues of pyn hous, ne kiddes of pyn flokkes 49/10 'I shall not take calves from thy house, nor kids from thy flocks'; ne wele-likeing ne shal nouzt be to hym in mannes legges 146/11; y lifted my soule to be 142/10; As pe fur pat brennep pe wode, and as lowe brennand pe mounteins 82/13 'like fire that burns the wood, and flame burning the mountains'; rotennes entred in my bones (p. 185); spredand out be heuen as a skyn 'spreading out the heaven like a skin'; as shepe of slaztter 43/24 'as a sheep for slaughter'; Joseph was solde to pral purth hem 104/16 'J. was sold as a slave by them'; As he egle clepand hir briddes to fleze . . . He sprad out his wenges (p. 186) 'like the eagle calling her young birds to fly, He spread out His wings'.

The chief representative of the Kentish dialect of the fourteenth century, the Azenbite of Invit, or Remorse of Conscience, written at Canterbury by Dan Michel of Northgate, contains very few Norse forms. The only certain ones are (in 267 printed pages): HUSBAND: wymmen pet hep housebounde 48; greipen: agraypep his herte 119 'makes ready his heart'; HAVEN: to pe hauene of helpe pet is to Iesus crist 183; laze 'LAW'; MEEK: god pet louep Mueknesse and zopnesse 64 'God that loves meekness and truth'; kesten 'cast'; ROOT; SKILL; SKIN: ine ane ssepes scinne 44 'in a sheep's skin'; scot 'tax': pis is pet scot pet me ofte payp 51 'this is the tax that one often pays'; prel 'thrall'; uelage 'fellow'; wing; wrang 'wrong'.

Finally, we must examine a few documents from the City of London, and consider briefly the Scandinavian element in the

¹ Ed. Morris, E.E.T.S., 23.

writings of Chaucer as a representative London poet. There are few or no documents until the latter part of the fourteenth century that can be definitely ascribed to the dialect of London. A collection of seventy-five documents, from 1384 to 1425, including letters, accounts, wills, and other official papers, has recently been edited.¹ In these occur the following words, which still survive: again(st) (but usually ayeins, etc.), bond(man), both, call, cast, fellow, get, law, low, ragg(ed) 'spiky', root, scot 'tax', seem, skill, slaughter, sister (but usually soster, O.E. sweoster), take, they—their—them, Thurs(day); besides brenne, renne, tithinges, and husteng (now only in hustings, in a rather different sense): be peir dede enrolled in pe hustenge of London (Letters, xv, 5); cf. this word in Old English (p. 67).

Chaucer, in the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, uses twentyseven definitely Scandinavian words: agayn prep., algate, AWE, BIG, CAKE, CALL, CATP, DROOP, FELLOW, GEAR, GET, HAVEN, KNIFE, LAW, LEG, LOW, MEEK, MIRE, nightertale, renne, ROOT, SCATHE, SEEM, snybben (Dan. snibba; cf. SNUB, which seems to be related), TAKE, THEY (but not their and them), THRIFT. The Parliament of Fowls adds to this list brenne, DIE, hap, GATE, on-lofte, SKILL, WILL, WRONG. Elsewhere in Chaucer we find the following: anger(ly) 'grievously', atwynne, baiten 'feed', BOON, carl, egge(ment) 'incitement' (with French suffix), geste 'GUEST', greipen, gres, laten 'let', laus 'loose', may 'maiden', marc (money), (ouer)thwart, rape 'hasten', RAISE, rowte 'snore', scalle 'scab', skye (in the sense of 'cloud': And het a certeyn wynd to go, / And blew so hidously, and hye, / That hit ne lefte not a skye / In al the welken longe and brood H. of Fame III 408-11), SLY, SPAN-newe, styth 'anvil', store 'stubborn', THRIVE, TWIN 'two', wayke 'weak', WAIVE. wone 'plenty'.

OTHER SCANDINAVIAN LOANS

The texts which have been discussed have provided examples of most of the Scandinavian words which were borrowed in the Old and Middle English periods. To make the list more complete,

¹ London Documents, 1384-1425, ed. R. W. Chambers and M. Daunt, Oxford, 1931.

the following may be added, all dating from M.E. times, and all pretty certainly from Scandinavian: kilt vb. (O.Dan. kilte; the noun, derived from the verb, does not appear till the eighteenth century); ling 'heather' (O.N. lyng); rein(deer) (O.N. hreinn, cognate with O.E. hrān); probably rub vb.; scab; scant (O.N. skann-t, with neuter ending -t, as in want); scrap (O.N. skrap); skirt (O.N. skyrta; the native cognate is shirt); stab; swirl; tang (O.N. tangi); probably tangle vb. (the noun is from the verb, and is seventeenth century); wicker; perhaps snarl 'tangle'.

Since the Middle English period a number of Scandinavian words have entered English. In the fifteenth century: link, silt. Sixteenth century: batten 'feed', scud, perhaps wad, scrag, smelt (of ore), perhaps yaw (nautical), rowan, rug, slag, kink, skit, snag, scuffle, snug, scrub, simper. Seventeenth century: troll, oaf, squall, keg, skittles, gauntlet (in the phrase to run the gauntlet, first in 1661, but in its earlier form gantlope (from Swed. gatlopp) in 1646; note that the other gauntlet, which has influenced this, is from French), smut, bum(boat), perhaps nudge, skewer n. (1679), rune (1690); the cognate word existed in O.E., rūn; this would have become [raun] in Modern English, cf. the archaic round 'to whisper', from O.E. rūnian). Eighteenth century: cosy, muggy, tungsten (Swedish, from tung 'heavy' + sten 'stone') and trap (rock). Nineteenth century: vole (1805, first as vole-mouse), floe, nag vb., palstave (1851, in archæological use), ski (1885).

This does not include words which are now dialectal or archaic, such as daggle, scaur, and Milton's scrannel; or words denoting things especially connected with Scandinavia, Iceland, etc., such as marram(grass), fiord, auk, maelstrom, voe, loom 'guillemot' (all seventeenth-century); saga (1709), kraken, skald, desman (musk-rat, from Swed. desman-ratta), jokul (all eighteenth-century); and finally rorqual (whale) 1827, and storthing 1834.

CHAPTER V

THE FRENCH ELEMENT

It is curious that the introduction of French words into English was due in the first place to men of the same race as those who brought Scandinavian words to England. While Norwegians and Danes were fighting their way into this country, similar settlements were being made by the Vikings in the northern part of the kingdom of the Franks, and under the name of Normandy a strong feudal dukedom was established there, founded upon French culture and Northern strength.

The Normans adopted the French language, which they spoke with certain distinguishing characteristics, and it was this dialect which was carried into England in the eleventh century, and which developed there into a specific variety known as Anglo-Norman. From Anglo-Norman numerous words passed into English. Later, this influence was reinforced by new introductions from France, both from Norman-French and from the more southerly Central French, and also (though these are not common) from the speech of southern France, the langue d'oc or Provençal.

After the Norman Conquest Anglo-Norman was, for 300 years, the official language of the court, of justice, and of politics, and its influence on written English can be traced to an ever-increasing extent during all this period. By the time English had replaced Anglo-Norman in official use in the late fourteenth century, many hundreds of words had become surely established in the English vocabulary, and we find that Chaucer and Langland, for example, use something like 10 per cent of French words.

But it is perhaps the earliest appearance of these foreigners, and the gradual creeping in of one word after another, which are the most interesting parts of the history of the French influence on English, and to begin at the beginning we have to turn back to a period a hundred years earlier than the Norman Conquest.

By the end of the tenth century, communication between the countries on either side of the English Channel was fairly close in matters of trade as well as in matters of religion, the latter helped particularly at this time by the new impetus given to English monasticism by the French Cluniac Order. During the earlier part of the eleventh century, Edward, the son of Ethelred the Unready and of the daughter of a Norman duke. was being brought up in Normandy, the Scandinavians having gained the ascendancy in England, and when he at last came to the throne in 1042 the influence of his upbringing naturally remained, and his friends and supporters, both spiritual and temporal, were French. This certainly prepared the way for the Norman Conquest, and among other products of France the speech of William the Conqueror and his followers was by no means unfamiliar to many Englishmen at the time of the Battle of Hastings.

One or two of the early loans from French are a little doubtful; so prūd, prūt 'PROUD' (and the noun prūd 'PRIDE'), which is probably from a French form of Vulgar Latin prūd-is, and is common in O.E. in the eleventh century; and sot 'foolish', which is either directly from Vulgar Lat. sottus, or from French sot of the same origin; probably two forms existed in Old English, one with a short vowel, from Latin, the other, with a long vowel, from French. The word sott occurs, for instance, in the so-called Vocabulary of Elfric, as well as elsewhere in the eleventh century. Apparently French is the word tūr (cf. the early loan torr, from Lat. turr-is), which appears already in the Durham Retual of the late tenth century.

The eleventh-century Vocabulary of Elfric just mentioned has the French capun 'CAPON', glossing capo and gallinaccus (132), and tumb-(ere) 'dancer' (with English personal suffix, from O.Fr. tomb-er), for saltator 150. This word occurs also in the Late West Saxon Gospels: pære herodiadiscan dohtor inneode and tumbode (=saltasset) Mk. vi, 22 'the daughter of Herodias went in and danced' (the Lindisfarme Gospels have plæjede); so also in the corresponding passage in Mt. xiv, 6. One very early French word is to be found in the Lindisfarne and Rushworth Gospels: fræpgian (O.Fr. frapp-er), once translating accusāre (Mt. xii, 10), and once apparently in the sense of 'to reverence,

honour': hia gefræppegedon sumu minne Mk. xii, 6 'they have reverenced my son' (= reuerebuntur).¹ The verb servian (O.Fr. serv-er) has been noted in an eleventh-century version of the pseudo-Matthew Gospel: oðerne dæl pæm pe gode ane serueden 11. 48-9 ² 'another part to those who served God only'; an earlier copy has peowedon, a common English word in this sense. Two names for articles of food are also to be found in eleventh-century documents: gingifer 'ginger', in a prescription in the Leechbook, and bacun 'BACON', quoted by Napier (Contrib. to O.E. Lexicography, p. 56) as glossing the English word flièce 'flitch' in one of a series of entries relating to Bury St. Edmunds at the end of a manuscript of the Benedictine Rule in Corpus Christi College, Oxford.

The various versions of the Chronicle provide a few French words during the eleventh century: prut, already mentioned, in the phrase prutne here F 1005 (the E version has ranche here); the weapon-name arblast occurs in D 1079: weard pærrihte mid anan arblaste ofscoten 'was at once shot by an arbalest'; serfise 'SERVICE' in A 1070: pam biscopan de par cumene wæran be das arcebiscop Landfrances hæse pa serfise to donde 'the bishops who had come there at the bidding of Archbishop Lanfranc to render service'; two names of buildings are prisun 'PRISON' and castel 'CASTLE': & gefeng Rogcer eorl his mæg & sette on prisun D 1076' took Earl Roger his kinsman and put him in prison'; worhton castelas wide geond pas peode D 1066 'built castles throughout the country'; hi comon pa to pam castele to Tonebricge E 1087 'they came to the castle of Tonbridge,'; Old English had a word castel (from Lat. castellum), but this has the sense of 'village' (see above, p. 37); castel in the new sense is evidently a Norman introduction. The E manuscript or Peterborough version of the Chronicle is written in the same hand from the beginning up to 1121, so eleventhcentury and earlier entries should perhaps be regarded as dating only from the twelfth century. Besides castel (pa hæfdon pa welisce menn gewroht ænne castel on Herefordscire 1048 'the Welshman had built a castle in Herefordshire '), we note market, dated 963 but only in a charter which is probably a late eleventh

¹ Or has the glossator mistaken the Latin word for a form of reverberāre, and is the meaning here simply ' to strike, beat '?
² See Swaen, Englische Studien, xlix, 353.

century or twelfth-century addition: ic gife pone tun pe man cleopað Vndela . . . market & toll 'I give to the town which is called Oundle a market and the right of taking tolls'; tūr, with reference to the Tower of London: pone weall pe hi workton onbutan pone tur 1097 'the rampart which they built about the tower'; the title cancelere 'chancellor': & Rodbeard his cancelere pæt biscoprice on Lincolne 1093 ' and to R. his chancellor the bishopric of Lincoln'; lastly, the two names Bataille (of Battle Abbey, near the site of the Battle of Hastings): he let halgian pæt mynster æt pære Bataille 1094 'he ordered the monastery to be consecrated at Battle ', and Malueisin, which is the name of a castle, but which is translated in the Chronicle itself: pa het makian ænne castel toforan Bebbaburh, & hine on his spæce Malueisin het pæt is on Englisc Yfel nehhebur 1095 'he ordered a castle to be built near Bamborough, and called it in his language Malvoisin, which is in English Evil Neighbour'.

Later in the twelfth century, until the Peterborough Chronicle comes to an end in 1154, French words become more numerous. They may be classified as follows:-

(A) Words denoting person or rank: abbat 'ABBOT' (cf. O.E. abbod, directly from Latin) 1123; canonie 'canon': he was canonie of an mynstre Cicc 1123 'he was canon of a monastery called Cicc'; capelein 'chaplain' (see note on cancelere above): Turstein . . . se wæs æror þæs cynges capelein 1114 'Thurstan, who had previously been the king's chaplain'; cardinal: sende se papa of Rome to dise lande an cardinal 1125; clerc (cf. the Latin loan cleric, -oc in O.E.): pa cusen [= chose] hi an clerc Willelm of Curboil wæs gehaten 1125; cuntesse 'COUNTESS' and emperice: pe hefde ben Emperice in Alamanie & nu wæs cuntesse in Angou 1140 'who had been Empress of Germany and now was Countess of Anjou'2; duc 'DUKE': se duc of Sicilie 1129; legat 'LEGATE': com an legat of Rome Henri wæs gehaten 1123 'a legate called Henry came from Rome'; prior: prior on Cantwarbyrig 1107' prior of Canterbury'. The following three terms denote assemblies or groups: curt 'COURT': & to king

¹ The modern form is from the Central French dialect, with ch- for the

The modern form is from the Central French dialect, with ch- for the northern c.. See Appendix D.

The O.E. casere (from Latin), used normally of the Emperor of Rome, is still used (once) in this part of the Chronicle: his dolter pet he error hafde given pone kasere Heanri of Loherenge to wife 1126. M.E. often has keiser, a Scand. loan, ultimately from Latin, but also of course Emperor.

bletcæd in Lundene . . . & held pær micel curt 1154 'was consecrated king in London, and held a great court there'; cap(i)tel 'chapter (of monks): swa swa hi hæfden cosen ærcebiscop æror in here capitele 1123 'as they had chosen an archbishop earlier in their chapter'; bærnde eall bæt mynstre of Burh & eallæ ba husas butan se captelhus & se slæpperne 1116 'the whole of the monastery of Peterborough was burnt and all the buildings except the chapter-house and the dormitory'.

- (B) Finance: rent: wrote on be circe & sette barto landes & rentes 1137 'worked on the church and endowed it with lands and rents'; tenserie 'payment for protection': hi læiden gæildes on the tunes . . . & clepeden it tenserie (Low Lat. tenseria) 1137 'they imposed taxes on the towns, and called it "tenserie"; tresor: he hadde get his tresor 1137 'he had obtained his treasure ' (cf. the Scand. loan-word gærsum, gersum, which was finally supplanted by tresor).
- (C) Buildings: crucet-(hūs) 'torture-house' (fr. French from Lat. cruciātus) 1137; celle 'CELL': ealle pa priores muneces & canonias pa wæron on ealle pa cellas on Englaland 1129.
- (D) Law and social relations: acorden 'to come to terms, agree; reconcile' (cf. the O.E. term sæhtnian): se ærcebiscop ... weard burk pone papan wid pone cyng acordad 1120 'the archbishop was reconciled with the king through the pope's intervention'; manega him to gebugen & wið hine acordedan 1119 'many went over to his side and came to terms with him'; iustise 'JUSTICE': he dide god iustise & makede pais 1140 'he administered justice well and made peaceful conditions'; pais 'peace' (cf. Scand. grip, and O.E. frip): alle diden him manred & suoren be pais to halden 1140 'all did him homage and swore to keep the peace'; privilegie: he for to Rome . . . & begæt thare priulegies 1137 'he went to Rome and there obtained privileges '.
 - (E) Religion: cariteo 1 charity; provision, sustenance, given

¹ O.Fr. carite(t), Lat. caritat-em. Final -t, -d after a vowel were lost in French about the beginning of the twelfth century, having first become open consonants, -þ, -ð; this stage lasted longer in Anglo-Norman, and M.E. has a number of examples showing this final þ, ð: natuiteð, also in the Chronicle; cariteþ, by the side of karite, in Vices and Virtues; cariteþ in Orm; and feið and plenteð in Genesis and Exodus (see all these below). Feið 'FAITH' is the only one in which this -th has survived; the others were reborrowed with O.Fr. final -é, Mod. Eng. -y.

for charity': heold mycel carited in the hus 1137' provided much cheer in the monastery'; miracle: maket pur ure Drihtin wunderlice & manifældlice miracles 1137' through our Lord performed wonderful and many miracles' (O.E. uses the word wundor' wonder' in this sense); nativiteð: On pisum geare to Nativiteð 1102, 1105' in this year at the Nativity'; processiun: he wæs mid procession underfangan to abbat 1103' he was received as abbot with a procession' (this text also uses the Latin form processionem).

(F) Military: Standard (the stem of this word had been borrowed by French from Germanic; it is the same word as stand): flemdon pe king æt te Standard 1138 'routed the king at the (battle of the) Standard'. The O.E. words in this sense are seign (a Latin loan), cumbol, chiefly poetical, tācen 'token', and pūf, the latter meaning originally 'a tuft'; Mod. Eng. flag (not recorded in this sense till the fifteenth century) is Germanic, but most words denoting flags of various types came from French into English, e.g. ensign, banner, pennon, though some of them, like standard, were adopted first by French or Vulgar Latin from Germanic, e.g. banner, gonfalon.

The three legends of St. Margaret, St. Katherine, and St. Juliana, already referred to in the previous chapter, have a rather higher proportion of French words than of Scandinavian. In a rough classification they are as follows: (A) Persons: baptist: sein iuhan be baptiste Jul. 41 (the native word was fulurhtere, fulluhtere, which is not used in M.E., though the noun fulluht, and the verb fulhen, fulwen are common, and are both used in these legends; cristnien occurs also in O. and M.E.; baptist and baptise do not become common till the modern period); clerc 'learned man, CLERK': fifti scolmeistres, / of alle be creftes / bæt clerc ah to cunnen Kath. 523 'fifty schoolmasters, of all the sciences which a clerk ought to know'; dame (as a form of address): hu nu, dame, dotestu Kath. 2080 'how now, lady, are you mad?' (king to queen); grandame: in hire grandame hus Marg. 22 (the O.E. term for 'grandmother' was eald-modor); meister: hwa sende pe to me ant is meister over pe Jul. 40 'who sent thee to me and is master over thee?' (this is really not distinguishable from the M.E. development of O.E. mædester, which was borrowed direct from Latin); pilegrim

- (O.F. *pelegrin, from Lat. peregrīnum 'stranger'): as pilegrimes, pe wel witen, seggeð Kath. 2470 'as pilgrims say, who know well'; prince: pe prude prince Kath. 579; of pæt heðene folc patriarke ant prince Marg. 2; prophete: Abacuc pe prophete Kath. 1826; seint: sein iuan Jul. 40 'St. John'; sire: pi sire sathan pat tu leuest uppon Jul. 54 'Satan your lord, in whom you believe'; curt 'court': tu schalt, pu motild, / to curt cumen Kath. 397 'thou shalt, babbler, come to court'.
- (B) Finance: rente: heh mon of cunne ant eke riche of rente Jul. 4 'a man of noble blood and rich in rents'; riche, poure: pet poure ba and riche 'both poor and rich' Kath. 50; pat refde pen riche iob his ahte Jul. 40 'that deprived rich Job of his possessions'.
- (C) Buildings: castel: castel of strencõe azein pe stronge Marg. 11; chapel: hwa so omi nome makeð chapele oðer chirche Marg. 20 'whoever in my name makes a chapel or a church'; postel 'post': in te twa stanene postles Jul. 56 'on the two stone posts'; prisun: into darc hus & prisunes pine Jul. 30; tūr.
- (D) Law and social relations: crūnen vb., crūne n.: to eche wunnen icrunet Marg. 1 'crowned in eternal bliss'; & te an toc ane guldene crune, & sette on hire heavet Kath. 1570 'and the one took a golden crown and set it on her head'; place: 3ef he come in place Kath. 1309 'in public'; selen 'to SEAL': isealede writes Kath. 407 'sealed letters' (St. Margaret has the verb seilien and the noun inseil, from O.E. siglian, insegl, direct from Latin); serven: softe me bið euch derf hwen ich him serve Jul. 18; also (with Eng. prefix) of-serven 'deserve': pu hauest inoh min freontschipe of-servet Jul. 34 'you have enough deserved my friendship'; servise; sputen, desputen: nan swa deope ilearet pæt durste sputin wið us Kath. 1308 'none so deeply learned that he dare dispute with us'; pæt ha beo ear ouercumen wið desputinge Kath. 561 'that she may first be overcome by argument'; warant: widewene warant ant meidenes mede Marg. 8 'safeguard of widows and maiden's reward'.
- (E) Religion: grace: hefde pe grace of pen hali gost Marg. 2; lei 'law, religion' (O.Fr. lei, from Lat. legem): leaffule in godes lei Kath. 164 'faithful in the law of God'; merci: ant merce wummon haue of mi wrechedom Jul. 48 'and have mercy, woman, on my misery'; merciable 'pitiful': ne beod cristene...

merciable ant milzful Jul. 52 'are not Christians merciful and pitiful?'; miracle (also the native term wunder); parais: paraises zeten aren zarewe iopenet Marg. 12 'the gates of Paradise are ready opened'; passiun: prowede, oder polede pine oder passiun Kath. 1157 'suffered, or endured pain or passion' (the native prowien vb., prowung n., remained in use till the later thirteenth century); salve 'salvation', salven 'to save': rihtwise weole & sunfule salue Jul. 64 'the riches of the righteous and the salvation of the sinful'; us for to saluin & makien us stronge Kath. 1025 'to save us and make us strong'; maumet 'heathen idol' (from the personal name Mahomet): to makien swucche maumez of treo over of stan Kath. 265 'to make such idols of wood or stone'; ymage: ichulle leten makien pe of gold an ymage Kath. 1465 'I shall have an image of gold made'.

(F) Military: werre 'WAR', werrien 'to make war against'

- (ultimately of Germanic origin).
- (G) Nature: best: pu bittre baleful beast Kath. 2038 'thou bitter baleful beast' (O.E. deor later acquired the specialized sense of 'deer', but all through M.E. the meaning 'beast' is common); leun 'LION': daniel bimong pe wode leuns Jul. 32 'Daniel among the raging lions' (this form replaced the O.E. lēo, from Latin); aromat 'aromatic herb': wið smirles of aromaz swote smellinde Kath. 2194 'with sweet-smelling ointment of aromatic herbs'; oil (O.Fr. oile; cf. O.E. ele, from Latin oleum): pe flowed ut wid pe eoile Kath. 2483 'which flows out with the oil'; rose: as lilie ileid to rose Kath. 1423 'like lily laid with rose'; marbre 'marble': of marbre-ston a temple; flum 'river': iflum iurdan Jul. 62 'in the river Jordan'.
- (H) Clothes, textiles, etc.: ciclatun, sendal: wið ciclatouns & cendals & deorewurde clades [= precious garments] Jul. 9 (cendal in MS. Bodley; not in Royal); mantel: hudden hare heavet . . . under hare mantles Marg. 7 'hid their heads under their mantles'; purpre 'purple silk': wid purpre wid pal & wið ciclatun Jul. 8.
- (J) Household and other objects: basin: his two ehnen... brad as bascins Marg. 9 'his two eyes, broad as basins'; furneis: pat ferliche fur i pe furneise Jul. 32 'the dreadful fire in the furnace' (O.E. has ofen 'oven' in this sense); lamp: makeð chapele oðer chirche oðer ifindeð in ham liht oðer lampe

Marg. 20 'makes a chapel or church or provides in them light or lamp'.

- (K) Physical action, appearance, faculty, etc.: cachen 'CATCH' (cf. O.E. læċċan, now latch): zef ha keccheð me nu ne findi neauer leche Jul. 72 'if they catch me now I shall never find a doctor' (i.e. shall never recover); changen: pa he pis iherde changede his chere Marg. 3 'when he heard this his face changed'; chere 'face, appearance'; savour: swotest to smeallen...his swote sauur Marg. 4 'sweetest to smell...his sweet savour'; also sauure 'savoury' Kath. 1527; semblant: pæt hit ne sem, nowðer ne suteli omi samblant pæt ich derf drehe Marg. 5 'that it may not seem, or appear in my face, that I am suffering pain'.
- (M) Moral and intellectual: clergesse 'female scholar': anlepi dohter icuret clergesse Kath. 75 'an only daughter, an eminent scholar'; clergie 'science': clerkes . . . swide crefti of alle clergies Kath. 585; cravant 'defeated, coward(ly)' (later craven; the etymology is doubtful; it seems to have some connexion with O.Fr. creant): al ha icneowen ham crauant & overcumen Kath. 132 'all acknowledged themselves defeated and overcome'; ich am kempe ant he is crauant Marg. 11' I am a warrior and he is a craven'; dout 'doubt, fear': cum nu, & beo pu na ping o dute Kath. 2430 'come now, and be not in doubt'; gin 'device; snare': pis pinfulle gin, o swuch wise iginet Kath. 1955 (of St. Katherine's wheel) 'this painful device, contrived in such a way '; hardi: se swide wilcueme & se hardi Kath. 1729 'well-pleasing and brave'; meistrie 'mastery': cweden hire be meistrie Kath. 133 'ascribed to her the mastery'; orgel 'pride': his egede orhel ferliche afallet Marg. 11 'his foolish pride suddenly cast down'; pes 1: custe ham a cos of pes Jul. 74 'kissed them with a kiss of peace'; reisun 'reason, answer': to zelden reisun for ham Kath. 2216 'to give an answer to them'.

 (X) Miscellaneous: Feverer 'February': of feouereles
- (X) Miscellaneous: Feverer 'February': of feouereles moned Jul. 78 (MS. Bodley has feouerreres); Latin: lewede men pat understonden ne mahen latines ledene (on the meaning of O.E. læden, leden see p. 30; it seems to have always the sense of 'speech' in M.E.).

It is apparent from the number of groups already necessary to classify the French words in these early texts, that English

¹ For this form compared with pais, see Appendix D.

borrowings from French are by no means limited in character. Nor do the majority of them necessarily imply the introduction of new objects and ideas from the Continent, since the new word quite often replaces an old one. The most distinctive group in Early Middle English (and this is due to the character of much of the earliest M.E. literature) is that under the heading of Religion. We may notice already, however, numerous words for different classes of persons, for titles, etc., and the beginning of the plentiful supply of words for clothes, etc., which become very much increased in number in later Middle English.

The short verse text known as the Proverbs of Alfred (see p. 79) has very few French words: (A) CLERK; COMPANY. (B) POOR; RICH; MULTIPLY (multeplien heure god 634 'to multiply their goods'). (K) (bi)cacchen. (M) AMEND; dote 'fool' (ich telle him for a dote 457 'I reckon him a fool'; GENTLE (gentile man); gentelerie 'gentle-ness, gentility' (puru pis lore ant genteleri / he amendit huge companie 668); gile 'GUILE'; scarnen 'scorn'; orgul' pride'.

The south-eastern Vices and Virtues (see p. 79) has many of the French words which have already been noted, as well as a few new ones. Taking the same classification as before: (A) clerc; ermite (ancres & eremites 35); pilegrime (pilegrimes de lated her awen eard 35 'who leave their own country'); proflete; seint; spuse; virgine. (B) Finance: besant (da fif gildenene besantes 17 'the five golden bezants'; from O.Fr., from Lat. bezantius (nummus) 'coin of Byzantium'); rente (tunes, ode odre pinges pe rentes ziued 77 'towns or other things that yield rents'); richesse 'RICHES' (not originally a plural) (zie riche menn de habbed swa michele blisse of zeuer michele richeise 69 'you rich men who have so much happiness in your riches').

- (C) Buildings, etc.: castel; hermitorie (munec mai ut-faren mid ileaue in to hermitorie 73 'a monk may, with permission, go out into a hermitage'; tūr: (hlauerd, bie ure tur of strenghe 107 'Lord, be our tower of strength').
- (D) Law and social relations: crune (de mann de is azeanes de kinge de wile his curune him benemen 15 'the man who is against the king and wishes to take his crown'; menstre' office' (later mester) (zif he bie of heize menstre 7 'if he be of high office';

obedience 'obedience; command, authority' (sif he hafð sum hei obedience 7 'if he has some high command'); pleiten 'to plead' (wa zeu ðe beplantið zeuer emcristen 81 'woe to you who plead against your fellow Christian); servise.

- (E) Religion: casten 'chasten, chastise' (he besohte at gode pat naht ne scolde reinin for de folke to kastien 143 'he besought God that it should not rain, to punish the people'); discipline (nemed discipline of alle de misdades de 3e ded 125 'make a discipline of all the misdeeds which you do'); religiun (nimed [= take] de clodes of religiun 5); religius (dane religiuse man de alle woreld-ping for godes luve hafd forlaten 3 'the religious man, who has left all worldly things for the love of God').
- (G) Nature: lion (alswa de lyon de gad abuten pe dier hem to forswolezen 139 'like the lion that goes about the beasts to devour them'); roche 'rock' (do stan-roches of de harde hierte 45 'the stony rocks of the hard heart'); senevei 'mustard' (de seneueies corne 29 'the mustard-seed').
 - (J) Household: lamp.
 - (K) Physical: (\bar{a}) cofrian 'recover'.
- (M) Moral and intellectual: carite, also carite (see note, p. 108): (Cristes karite, dat is godes lune & mannes 19 'Christ's charity, that is the love of God and man'; se de wuned on karite, he wuned on gode 37 'he who dwells in charity, dwells in God'); and also the Central French form charite; grace; maistre 'mastery'; sermun (durh halize writes oder durh hali sermuns 35 'by holy writings or holy sermons').

The Lambeth and Trinity Homilies, of the late twelfth century, have a vocabulary of rather similar type, with a slightly higher proportion of French words. In the Lambeth group the following are to be found (there are no entries under (F) Military, or (H) Clothes):

(A) erite 'heretic' (or this may be directly from Lat. haereticus); DISCIPLE (cf. O.E. discipul, from Lat.); CLERK; MINISTER (godes minist[re] he scal mundian efre 115 'God's minister He shall ever protect'); CATCH-POLL, literally 'chase-chicken' (Matheus pet wes cachepol pene he iwende to god-spellere 97 'Matthew who was a catch-poll when he became an evangelist'); JUGGLER (pa lizeres and pa wohdemeres and pa inguleres and pa oder sottes 29 'the liars and false judges and

jugglers and other fools'); meister (pa welle bi-wisten xii meister deoften 41' twelve master-devils guarded the well'); patriarch; prophet; robbers (rubberes and pa reueres and pa peoues 29' robbers and plunderers and thieves'); saint; spouse.

- (B) POVERTY (per scal been worldwunne widuten pouerte 143 'there shall be joy without poverty'; RICH.
- (C) CASTLE (heauekes and hundes, castles and tunes 49 'hawks and hounds, castles and towns'; but also at least once (p. 3) in the sense 'village', where it represents O.E. castel, a Latin loan); gerner 'granary' (O.Fr. gerner, grenier, from Med. Lat. grānārium) (bet corn me deð in to gerner 85 'men put corn into the granary'); PRISON.
- (D) crune; livreisun 'award' (in pe dere of liureisun hwense god almihtin wule windum pet er wes iporschen 85 'in the day of judgement, when almighty God will winnow what has been threshed'); SERVICE.
- (E) archangel (but usually this text has the O.E. engel); circumcisiun; grace; merci; ureisun 'ORISON' (pe halie ureisums pe me singeð in halie chirche 51); parais (pet wes eorðliche parais 129 'that was the earthly paradise'), but also the O.E. (Latin) form paradis; passiun (Vre drihtnes halie passiun, pet is his halie prowunge 119); processiun; sacren vb., sacrament (pe halie sacramens pe me sacreð in alesnesse of alle sunneres 51 'the holy sacraments which are consecrated for the redemption of all sinners'); sauter 'psalter' (the development of Fr. -lt-to -ut-goes back at least as far as the eighth century).
- (G) flum 'river'; mont (uppon ane dune pat is be mont of synai 87' on a hill which is Mt. Sinai'); blanchet 'white flour' (pas wimmen heo smuried heom mid blanchet pet is pes deofles sape 53' these women smear themselves with powder, which is the devil's soap'); frut 'fruit' (alse me sawed sed on ane time and gedered pet frut on oder time 135' as one sows seed at one time, and gathers the fruit at another time'); oli 'oil'; arabisz (O.Fr. Arabis), mule 'Mule' (cf. O.E. mūl, from Latin), palefrei (O.Fr. palefrei(d), from L.Lat. paraveredus 'PALFREY'; he mihte ridan zif he walde on riche stede and palefrai and mule and arabisz 5' he might if he wished ride on a fine horse or palfrey or mule or Arab steed').
 - (J) bar (tobrec pa irene barren of helle 131 'broke the iron bars

of hell'); table (drihten him bi-tahte twa stanene tables 11 'the Lord gave him two tables of stone'; ec he writ heo in his tables 21 'also he wrote it in his tablets').

(K) FEEBLE (pa bi-come his licome swide feble 47 'then his body became very feeble').

(M) CHARITY (Lamb. has both charite and cherite); the A.-N. form carite is no longer used); large 'generous' (be Men ful of milce [= pity] and be large Men 143); lechur; pēs; prūd; sermonen 'to preach, talk'; sot 'fool', asottien 'become foolish'; uers 'verse' (cf. O.E. fers, direct from Latin).

This text not infrequently has O.E. forms which were even as early as this often replaced by French words, e.g. $l\bar{e}o$ 'lion', inseil 'seal', engel 'angel', etc.

The Trinity Homilies contain many of these words, besides some others. The following are the most noteworthy instances:
(A) maisterling (with English suffix; ge maisterlinges of pesternesse opened giver gaten 113 'you princes of darkness open your gates'); eremite 'hermit'; barun 'BARON' (ne was pe engel isend ne to kinge ne to eorle ne to barun 35).

- (C) sepulce 'SEPULCHRE'.
- (D) CUSTOM (it is custume pat ech chirch-socne goð pis dai a processiun 89 'it is the custom that each parish goes on a procession this day'); HONOUR (noht for godes luue ac . . . for onur to hauen 83 'not for the love of God, but in order to get honour'); waiten 'to watch, WAIT, for, heed' (bitrumede pat child and waiteden hit on eche wise 87 'supported the child and tended it in every way').
- (E) absolucion; calice 'chalice' (the Central French form chalice is not recorded till the fourteenth century); chastien 'CHASTEN' (cf. casten in Vices and Virtues); PENITENCE; also advent, with explanation: todai is cumen de holie tid pat me cleped advent... pat is seggen on englis ure loverd ihesu cristes to-cume 3.
- (G) langust 'locust'; leun 'lion' (cf. leo in Lamb. Hom.); OLIVE, PALM (sum palm-twig, and sum boh [= bough] of olive 89).
- (K) aisie 'at ease' (O.Fr. aisie); meseise 'unease'; struien 'destroy' (pat he sholde fare to pe burh of ierusalem and strugen it 51 'that he should go to the city of Jerusalem and destroy it').
 - (L) Food: feste 'FEAST'.

(M) mesure 'moderation; MEASURE'; orgel, orguil 'pride' (worldes richeise wecheð orgel on mannes heorte 43 'worldly riches kindle pride in man's heart'; proue 'try, test, PROVE' (proue ech man himseluen 93 'let each man try himself'): ROBBERY (oðer purh piefes oðer purh roberie 61 'through thieves or robbery'); VERSE (elch of hem wrot his uers and sainte peter he wrot pat formeste 17 'each of them wrote his verse, and St. Peter wrote the first').

Lazamon's poem, The Brut (see p. 80), is very different from the Middle English texts already dealt with in this chapter, but the French element does not differ as widely as the matter and its treatment, except that the number of words under (E) Religion is fewer. The second version, about fifty years later than the early one, has considerably more French words, and a comparison of the two is well worth while. Many of the English words in the first text which are replaced by French words in the second are words which do not occur at all in later M.E., and had presumably become archaic or obsolete when the second version was made.

First, then, the French forms in MS. Caligula, c. 1200: (A) Persons: admirail 'Saracen king, emir' (ADMIRAL); barun 'BARON'; CARDINAL; CLERK; duc'DUKE'; dusze-pers, the 'twelve peers' of Charlemagne (but this is rather a quotation from French than a real loan: twelfe iferan [= companions], pa Freinsce heo cleopeden [= called them] dusze pers I, 69); ermite 'HERMIT'; LEGATE; machun 'mason' (hornes per bleouwen, machunnes heowen I, 223) (of building a castle) 'horns were blowing, masons hewing'); PILGRIM; PRELATE; PRIMATE; SAINT; senatur 'SENATOR' (of Rome), also senaht 'SENATE'; SIRE.

- (B) Finance: POOR; RICH. This text also has the word riche in the sense of 'powerful', and as a noun meaning 'realm'; these are from the O.E. rice (see p. 55).
- (C) Buildings, etc.: CASTLE; postel (MS. Otho, the later version, has post); tūr, tour (also turre, probably direct from Latin).
- (D) Social: crun 'CROWN' (but here in the sense of 'head'); seruise (in MS. Caligula the word is used only of worship in a (heathen) temple, e.g. pe king bi-gon seruise I, 344).

¹ See especially on the vocabulary of the two MSS., H. C. Wyld, Studies in the Diction of Lazamon's Brut, Language, vi, March, 1930.

- (E) Religion: ANGEL; maumet, mahimet, mahun 'idol'; PROCESSION.
- (F) Military: legiun 'Roman legion' (For ilke legiuns, heo clupeden Kair-Usk Kaerliun I, 257 'for the same legions they called Caer-Usk Caerleon'); weorre 'WAR', weorrien vb. (once where Otho has werre, Calig. has the native comp).

 (G) Nature: flum, flom 'river'; gingiuere 'ginger'; liun
- (G) Nature: flum, flom 'river'; gingiuere 'ginger'; liun (Calig. also uses O.E. leo; Otho has lion and leo); licoriz 'liquorice'; montaine; olifant 'elephant' (anne scelde gode he was al clane of olifantes bane II, 576 'a good shield, it was all throughout of ivory').
- (H) Clothes, etc.: cheisil (O.Fr. chainsil, a linen material) II, 575; mantle; purpre 'purple silk' (pælles and purpras & guldene ponewæs I, 100 "pall and purple and golden pennies').

 (J) Household, etc.: caöel (Otho catel) 'goods, property, chattels'; coriun, a musical instrument (of fièele & of coriun
- (J) Household, etc.: caŏel (Otho catel) 'goods, property, chattels'; coriun, a musical instrument (of fiŏele & of coriun I, 298); timpe 'tambour'; GYVES (giues swrŏe grete heo duden an his foten II, 218 'great gyves they put on his feet'); CABLE (he hihte hondlien kablen, teon serles to toppa I, 57 'he ordered the cables to be handled, the sails to be hoisted to the tops'); māl 'coffer' (surviving in mail, mail-bag, etc.).
- (K) Physical: ARRIVE; CATCH; freche 'FRESH'; grauen 'engrave'; soffri 'suffer'; striuing 'striving' (in one passage, Calig. has flit, for which Otho has strīf); WAIT, 'be in expectation'.
- (M) Moral and intellectual: ASTRONOMY (to lokien in pan steorren . . . pe craft is ihate Astronomie II, 598); ginne 'trap, device' (here in a non-material sense); latinier 'interpreter' (he wes pe bezste latimer pat ær com her); scarn 'scorn' (mucchel hoker & scarn II, 301 'much contempt and scorn'; O.Fr. escarnir; Otho has the later scorn, from O.Fr. escorner); sot 'fool'.

The later manuscript of Lazamon has the following words of French origin which do not occur in the earlier one:—

(A) CHIEFTAIN (ouer eche ferde / anne cheueteine I, 251; MS. Caligula has the native hertoze, O.E. here-toga); conseil 'COUNCIL' I, 98 (MS. Calig. has husting, a Norse loan, see p. 67); rout 'assembly, company' (and sone a-zein come cnihtes to route III, 7 'knights came again soon into a company', MS.

Calig. $h\bar{v}reden$; also route of wolves, Calig. weored, a common O.E. word for 'band, host').

- (B) Finance: tresor, if this is the correct reading in III, 154 pe king of [tr]esur ne rohte (MS. damaged) 'the king cared not for treasure'; Calig. whte, a native word; truage 'tribute' (O.Fr. treuage, fr. treu, Lat. tribūt-um, + -age; truage of pis londe II, 630; Calig. gauel, O.E. gafol).
- (C) Buildings: ABBEY (Bangor was on abbey III, 191; Calig. munucclif, O.E. munuc-līf); Chapel (Calig. chireche); prisun 'prison' (I, 43, where Calig. has quarcerne, which Otho also uses elsewhere; this is perhaps a blend of O.E. cweartern and the Lat. loan carcern, or it may be merely a graphical mistake for the former); nonnerie 'nunnery' (Calig. munstre, O.E. mynster).
- (D) Social: GRANT (zef pou pis wolt granti me II, 167 'if you will grant me this'; here and elsewhere Calig. has zette, etc., O.E. jēatan, which Otho also uses sometimes); HONOUR; HOSTAGE (four and twenti hostages / Childrich par bi-tahte II, 454 '24 hostages Childric gave'; Calig. gisles, O.E. jīsel, which is also to be found in Otho); SERVE (he bad him pat he moste sarui him a wile I, 169 'he asked him that he might serve him for a while', Calig. hēren, which is its usual word, though it has pæinen, O.E. peģman, in II, 612, where Calig. has saruy).
- (E) Religion: GRACE (Calig. milce); IMAGE (makede tweie ymages pane drake iliche II, 339 'made two images like the dragon', Calig. imaken, O.E. ġemaca).
- dragon', Calig. imaken, O.E. jemaca).

 (F) Military: gisarme 'battle-axe' (Calig. axe, wi-æx); arsoun 'saddle-bow' (he ladde by his harsun I, 96 'he led [him] by his saddle-bow'; Calig. on his exle 'at his shoulder'); pensile 'small flag' (O.Fr. penoncel; pe king he sette up on an hulle mid mony pensiles III, 84 'he set the king up on a hill with many flags'; Calig. here-marken); spiare 'spy' (his spiares come and tolde to pan kinge III, 39), Calig. hauwæres, O.E. hāwere 'one who sees, spectator, spy'.
- 'one who sees, spectator, spy'.

 (G) Nature: contre 'COUNTRY' I, 54 (Calig. has montaine here); mont, mount 'MOUNT', several times where Calig. has munt, which is probably the O.E. loan-word from Latin; but usually Otho has hull for Caligula's munt; PARK (3e hontep in pis kinges parc I, 61 'you are hunting in the king's park';

Calig. friðe); marbre 'marble' (postes longe of marbre stones stronge I, 56; Calig. marmon stane, see mearm- in Chapter II).

- (H) Clothes: atyr 'ATTIRE'; GUISE (Calig. wisen).
- (J) Household: coupe 'cup' (Calig. bolle).
- (K) Physical: ascapede 'ESCAPED' (Calig. at-breac I, 68); aspien 'see, ESPY' (Calig. hozien); CHANGE; CRY (for pene deolfulle cri II, 75; here Calig. has sorhzen 'sorrow', elsewhere grure, O.E. gryre); DELAY (pat hii come to Ambres-buri wip houte delaie II, 308); PASS (paisi ouer bieres I, 57 'to pass over the waves', Calig. hōen); ROLL 'rub, burnish' (hie rollede wepne 512); siwen 'follow' [ensue]: ich pe wolle siwi I, 59 'I will follow you', Calig. mid fare; in II, 264 Otho has siwede for Caligula's after wende.
- (M) Moral and intellectual: deol 'sorrow' (hit was a deolful ping I, 294 Calig. ladlich' loathly'); fausien 'fail' (and his hereburne gon to fausie II, 584 'his coat of mail began to fail'; Calig. has falsie, which is from or influenced by O.E. fals 'falseness, fraud', direct from Lat. falsus); folie 'folly' I, 128 (Calig. sothscipe, sot being an older loan from Fr. or V.Lat.); gyle 'Guile' (Calig. vuele 'evil'): lettre 'letter' (one derne lettre zeo sende him to reade I, 192' a secret letter she sent him to read'; Calig. stille boc-runen = 'book-runes'); paie' to please, satisfy, PAY'; pais 'peace', for grip or frip in Caligula; also the verb paisi for sæhtnien in Caligula.

In contrast to the high proportion of Norse loan-words to be found in Orm's Ormulum, this writer uses only eleven words of French origin. Comparing this with the comparatively large number in the early manuscript of Lazamon's Brut, of about the same date, and with the far larger number in the western Ancrene Riwle, next to be discussed, little, if any, later in date, we are led to the conclusion that the French influence travelled more quickly across country to the West Midlands than up-country to the North-East Midlands.

The following are Orm's French words: PROPHET; BEZANT; RICH; CASTLE (to timmbrenn himm... An casstell zen pe defell II, 277 'to build for him a castle against the devil'); CROWN; karitep 'charity'; orgel 'pride'; scarn, scarnedd; flumm 'river'; gyn 'device'; bulten 'to sift, boult' (O.Fr. bulter; bulltedd bræd I, 32 'bread made of boulted flour').

1200-1250

We shall begin this half-century with another Western text, the Nero manuscript of the Ancrene Riwle (see p. 84), which has far more French words than any so far dealt with. It is, indeed, a long work, but even so the proportion is high. Since this is one of the most important works in Middle English it will be treated at some length. The number of technical religious terms is very noticeable, as is also the number of abstract terms included under (M) Moral and Intellectual, which is now sub-divided.

- (A) Persons: ame 'friend' (O.Fr. ami; ame dogge, go herut 290 'friend dog, go out'); also belami 'fair friend' (nai, belami, nai! 338); perhaps baban 'baby' (weope efter him, ase doð pet lutel baban efter his moder 234 'weep for him, as the little baby does for his mother'); baptist; burgeis (hit is ... burgeises riht for to beren purses 168 'it is a burgess's right to carry purses'); champiun (puruh pe tentaciuns, ipreoued to treowe champiuns 236 'proved by temptations to be true champions'); chaumberling; DAME; deciple; EMPEROR (burnh Julianes heste pe Amperur 244); eremite (mon bi him one, eremite oder ancre 12); EVANGELIST (another MS. has the Eng. word godspellere); fisicien 'PHYSICIAN'; HARLOT (beggen as on harlot . . . his livened 356 'to beg his living like a vagabond'); iuglurs 'jugglers'; kunseiler (Luue is his chaumberling & kunsiler 410 'Love is his chamberlain and councillor'); MANCIPLE (pe ziure glutun is pes feondes manciple 214 'the greedy glutton is the devil's purveyor'); MERCER; meistre; mesire; messager 'MESSENGER'; nurice 'NURSE' (rockeð hit zeornliche ase nurice 82' rocks it diligently like a nurse'); paroschian 'Parishioner'; PERSON; PILGRIM (pe gode pilegrim halt euer his rihte wei uoròward 348 'the good pilgrim ever keeps his direct way forward'); prechur; prelat; prisun 'prisoner'; prophet; RECLUSE; ROBBER; SAINT; SERVANT; SPOUSE; wardein (pe heorte wardeins beod pe vif wittes 48 'the guardians of the heart are the five wits'). Curt 'COURT'; mester (holde euerich his owene mester 72 'let every one keep to his own business'); press (me is loð presse 168 'a crowd is hateful to me').
- (B) Finance: ADVERSITY, PROSPERITY, (in adversite, & in prosperite 194); cwite 'quit', acwiten, cwitaunce (ponewes

- to worte acwiten . . . him mid 124 'pennies to set him free'); dette, dettur (pe dette pet tu owest me 126); PAY (er he hefde al his ransun fulliche ipaied 124 'before he had paid all his ransom in full'); RANSOM; RELIEF 'alms'; RENT; spense (he ne bered no garsum bute gnedeliche his spense 350 'he carries no monev but his bare expenses ').
- (C) Buildings, etc.: CASTLE; CELLAR (ide celere oder ide kuchene 214 'in the cellar or in the kitchen'); CELL 'storehouse' (pe celles of his aromaz 152 'his store-houses of aromatic herbs'); cite 'CITY'; kuuent 'convent'; gernere 'granary'; giste 'lodging' (halt forð his rute & hieð toward his giste 350 'holds on his way, and hastens towards his lodging'); kernel 'battlement' (O.Fr. crenel; halt hire heaved baldeliche uord vt iben open kernel 62 'holds her head boldly forth in the open battlement'); loggen 'camp, lodge' (we beoð ilogged her bi pe, pet ert ston of help 264 'we are encamped here beside thee, that art a stone of help'); PARLOUR (al beon heo lutle, pe parluris lest & nerewest 50 'let them (the windows) be little, the parlour's smallest and narrowest'); pilare 'PILLAR'; SEPULCHRE; tur 'TOWER' (euer so herre tur, so haued more wind 226 'the higher the tower, the greater the wind ').
- (D) Law and social relations: baundun (pe terme is ine Godes honden and nout i pine baundune 338 'the appointed time is in the hands of God and not in your power'); crune; culvert 'villainous' (O.Fr., from Lat. collibertus; cf. O.E. celmert, see p. 37); DEGREE; GIBBET (hongen on a gibet 116); GRANT; juggen 'JUDGE', jugement 'JUDGEMENT' (nis per no riht dom, ne no riht gugement 118 'there is no just sentence and no right judgement'); noces 'marriage'; SERVE, SERVICE; TERM 'appointed time'; trone (sette pe ine trone & quene crune on heaued 40 'placed thee on a throne and a queen's crown on thy head ').
- (E) Religion: ANNIVERSARY (ine anniversaries, pet is in mune-dawes (= days of remembrance) 22); caliz 'chalice'; canoniel 'canonical'; creoiz (O.Fr. crois, cruiz; makieð on ower mupe mit te pume a creoiz 18 'make the sign of the cross on your mouth with the thumb'; also Eng. rode-tokne), creoisen 'to make the sign of the cross on'; CRUCIFIX; chastien; eresi (Eresie . . . ne rixled nout in Engelond 82 'heresy has not

got the upper hand in England'); feste 'festival'; grace (purh his grace; cf. ower graces stondinde biuore mete & efter 44 'your graces, standing, before food and after'); misericorde (pe six werkes of misericorde 30 'the six works of mercy'); order; parais (Ne kumeð non into Parais bute puruh pisse leitinde sweord 356 'none comes into Paradise but past this flaming sword'); purgatory; religion, religious n.; rule (peos riwle is euere wiðinnen & rihteð pe heorte 2); sacren 'to consecrate', sacrament. Absolution; remission; salvation. Advent; assumption; nativity. Ave; collect; cump(e)lie 'compline'; hour (an oðer wise siggen hire ures 6 'to say her hours in another way'); imne 'hymn'; letanie 'litany'; nocturne; oreisun; paternostre; sauter 'psalter'; uers 'verse', uerset, uersalien 'to say versicles'.

- (F) Military: ASSAIL, ASSAULT (pes deoftes assauz beoð ofte strengest 196 'the assaults of the devil are often strongest'); baret 'strife'; calenge 'to challenge'; gunfaneur 'standard-bearer' (schrift, lo nu, is gunfaneur, & bereð her pe banere bivoren alle Godes ferde 300 'Lo, now, confession is a standard-bearer, and carries the banner before all God's army'); quarreau 'quarry, stone' (peo hwile pæt me mit quarreaus wiðuten asaileð pene castel 62); skirmen 'fight' (cf. skirmish; pe wreðfule... skirmeð mid knives 212 'the wrathful fight with knives'); turnement 'Tournament'.
- (G) Nature: AIR; DESERT; ROCK; BEAST; SCORPION (pisse deouel scorpiun, attri iteiled 206 'this scorpion, the devil, poison-tailed'); LION; UNICORN (mon wroð is wulf oðer leun oðer unicorne 120 'an angry man is a wolf or a lion or a unicorn'; in Old English a translated form, ān-horn, was used); corbin 'raven'; flur 'flour', fluren 'to flower, flourish'; fruit (swete frut, pet me clepeð figes 150); aromat; fig, figer 'fig-tree'; clou de gilore 'clove'; gingiuere 'ginger'; bame' balm'; eisil'vinegar' (this is recorded earlier, in the twelfth century Hatton MS. of the Gospels: aisil); licur 'liquor'; eoli 'oil'; piment 'spiced drink' (piment of swete huni luue, eisil of sur nið [= hatred] 404); spice (hope is a swete spice wiðinne þe heorte).
- (H) Clothes, etc.: abit 'Habit' 12; atiffen 'adorn' (lat oore atiffen hore bodi 360); Ornament (be ueire urnemenz pet

bitocneð blisse 302 'the fair ornaments that typify bliss'); VESTMENT (ne nout ne underuo ze pe chirche uestimenz 418 'do not take charge of the church vestments'); broche (ring ne broche nabbe ze 41 'have neither ring nor brooch'); stamin 'shirt of linen and woollen' (O.Fr. estamine); VAMP (A.-N. *vampé, from O.Fr. avan-pié) 'front part of shoe or stocking' (hosen wiðuten uaumpez 420). achate 'agate'.

- (J) Household and other objects: ampuile 'phial'; beaubelet 'jewel'; buste 'box' (O.Fr. boiste); cage 'CAGE' (brid ine cage 102); chetel 'chattels' (to dealen his feder chetel 224 'to distribute his father's goods'); crecche (O.Fr. crache, creche) 'crib'; kuvertur 'covering' (O.Fr. coverture); druerie 'token of love' (bis was his driwerie 250); giuegoue 'joujou, gewgaw' (worldes weole & wunne & wurschipe & oder swuche gruegouen 196); scorge 'scourge'; sponge (O.Fr. esponge; cf. O.E. spynge, from Latin); trufle 'trifle'.
- (K) Physical action, appearance, faculty, etc.: aboutien 'to stick out, lean out'; aspien 'spy on'; avancen 'to advance'; awaitien 'to lie in ambush' (AWAIT); babelinde 'chattering'; buffeten 'to BUFFET'; CATCH (heo hunted efter pris & keccheð lastunge 66 'she pursues praise and catches blame'; kauhte mid his cleafres 102 'caught with his claws'); CHANGE; DEPART; despoilen 'rob, DESPOIL'; disturben, sturben 'DISTURB' (ne muhte letten him of his beoden ne disturben him 162 'might not hinder him in his prayers, nor disturb him'; entermeten (O.Fr. entremetre) 'to meddle with, take part in' (zif heo entermeted hire of pinges widuten 172); frot(ung) 'rubbing, friction '(O.Fr. froter); jurneie 'JOURNEY'; lacen 'to LACE'; parten 'PART, depart'; recoilen 'to drive back; RECOIL'; regiben (O.Fr. regiber) 'to kick' (hit regibbed anon, ase uet kelf 138 'then it kicks, like a fat calf'); ROB; rute 'way, road'; SIGN (makien signes touward hire 70); soilen 'to SOIL'; STRIVE; trussen 'to pack up', trusseau 'pack, bundle' (itrussed mid trusseaus 168). Anguisus 'painful' (pe anguisus deade pet he schulde polien 112); baraine 'BARREN'; chere; cwoint 'brisk, active, skilful; elegant; clever; famous; well-known' (O.Fr. coint, from Lat. cognitus), Mod. Eng. quaint; eise 'at ease'; meseise 'uneasy'; FEEBLE; feblesce (pet we iknowen ure owune feblesce & ure owune muchele unstrencoe & ure owune

wocnesse 232 'that we may know our own feebleness and great lack of strength and weakness'); LARGE (a large creoiz 18); NOISE; semblaunt 'appearance'; SILENCE; tendre 'TENDER'; UNSTABLE; CHARGE 'burden'; charoin 'carcase, carrion' (the latter form from A.-N. caroigne; cf. Central Fr. charoigne); HAUNCH; sauur 'SAVOUR'.

- (L) Food: DIET; PITTANCE (was ever iziven . . . so poure pitaunce 114); potage (hwoso is ever feble ete potage 412).
- (M) Moral and intellectual: (i) States of mind, qualities, etc.: ABSTINENCE; AFFECTION; anui 'trouble, worry' (in pe anui of pisse worlde 374); asprete 'bitterness'; chastete 'CHASTITY'; cherite; comfort (froure & cumfort 176, the first being O.E. frōfor 'comfort'); kunscence 'consciousness'; contumace 'CONTUMACY'; creaunt 'craven'; cruel, cruelte; cuueiten 'COVET'; daunger 'arrogance', dangerus (ful itowen, dangerus, & erueð for te paien 108 'perverse, domineering, and difficult to please'), Mod. Eng. dangerous; debonerte; debonere 'gentle, meek, well-mannered' (pet debonere child hwon hit is ibeaten . . . cussed pe zerd [= kisses the rod] 186); deinte 'value, dignity' (me let lesse deinte to pinge pet me haued ofte 412 'one ascribes less value to a thing one has often'); delice 'pleasure'; delit 'DELIGHT' (a swetnesse & a delit of heorte 102); desperance 'despair' (ze muhten sone uallen . . . in desperaunce, pet is in unhope 8); deuocion 'DEVOTION'; deuout 'DEVOUT'; dute 'fear, DOUBT'; folie; folherdi 'FOOLHARDY'; gelus 'JEALOUS'; gentile (noble men & gentile ne bereð nout packes 166); genterise 'nobility'; gile 'Guile'; glorie; glutun 'Glutton'; ignorance: pet is unwisdom & unwitenesse 278); impatience; inobedience (inobedience: pet is pet child ne buhð [= obeys] nout his eldre 198); ipocrite, ipocrisie; JOY; largesse 'generosity'; kurteisie 'courtesy'; merci, merciable 'merciful'; mesure 'moderation' 336 (pe middel weie of mesure is ever guldene 336); NOBLE, noblesce 'nobility'; OBEDIENCE; orhel 'pride'; pacience (pacience, pet is polemodnesse 181); PENITENCE; PERFECTION; peis 'peace'; PRESUMPTION; PURITY (purete of heorte: pet is cleane, schir inwit 4 'purity of heart, that is a clean, clear conscience'); scorn (pe sixte Bacbitunge, pe seouede Upbrud oder Schornunge 200 'the sixth backbiting, the seventh reproach or scorn'); trecherie, treitre

(heo biswiked ou & is ower treitre 194 'she betrays you and is

- your traitor'); vilte 'meanness'; vngracius 'ungrateful person'.

 (M) (ii) Mental action, or action directed to the mind: affaiten 'dispose'; akointed 'acquainted'; ameistren 'to master'; asaumple 'example'; attente 'endeavour, attempt'; bisamplen 'to moralize'; BLAME; BLASPHEMY; COGITATION (cogitaciuns, pet beod fleoinde pouhtes [= flying thoughts] 288); kunsent 'CONSENT'; CONTEMPLATION; counsail 'advice'; COUPLE vb. (hwi Isaie ueieð hope & silence & kupleð boðe togederes 78 'why Isaiah connects hope and silence and couples them together'); defaut 'fault'; DISCIPLINE; deskumfit 'discomforted'; FAME 'reputation'; fantesme 'phantom'; grucchen 'to grumble' (O.Fr. grouchier); MEDITATION; OBSERVANCE; paien 'please; PAY'; pleinte 'complaint'; preche 'PREACH'; preisen 'to PRAISE'; pris 'praise'; PROFESSION (makien professiun 6); PROPHECY; preoue 'proof'; scandle 'scandal'; SIMONY; TEMPT, TEMPTATION; TRIBU-LATION; trublen 'TROUBLE'; WITNESS.
- (M) (iii) Other abstractions: astat 'state, estate'; capital adj. (al widuten eddren capitalen 258 'without the chief veins'); cas 'happening', auenture 'happening, event' (swuch cas and swuch auenture 340); CAUSE (cause is, hwr pu hit dudest 320 "cause" is why you did a thing'); CIRCUMSTANCE; efficace 'effect'; encheisun 'reason'; manere 'MANNER'; materie 'matter'; MERIT; POINT (bu ert in Eue point: bu lokest o ben eppel 52 'you are in the same case as Eve, you are looking at the apple ');
 private 'secrecy', privately'; PRIVILEGE; propre 'suitable'; reisun 'reason' (pis is nu pe reisun of pe veiunge [= joining] 78); spece 'kind' (pe spece of prude pet ich cleopede presumciun 208' the species of pride which I called presumption'); special (bute he habbe leave special of ower meistre 56 'unless he have special leave from your master').
- (M) (iv) Writing, learning, painting, and other arts: ARTICLE; augrim 'algorism, arithmetic'; autorite' (written) authority'; chapitre 'CHAPTER'; CLAUSE; clergesse 'learned woman'; descriuen 'describe'; distinctiun 'DISTINCTION, section'; enbreuen 'to write' (pet pe deouel naued enbreued on his rolle 344); FIGURE (figures of augrim 214); lescun 'LESSON'; lettre (ge ne schulen senden lettres ne underuon lettres ne writen buten

leaue 422); pagine 'page'; peintung (Ine schelde beoð preo pinges, pet treo [= wood], and pet leder, & pe peintunge 392); peinture 'wo and wunne [= joy] ipisse worlde al nis bute ase a scheadewe; al nis bute ase a peinture 242); depeinten 'to depict'; cwaer 'book' (O.Fr. quaier, Lat. quaternus) (peo ancre pet wernde an oder a cwaer worto lenen 248 'the recluse who refused to lend a book to another'); RECORD vb.; ROLL n.; sarmun 'Sermon'; salut (wrot mid his ownne blode saluz to his leofmon 388); scrowe 'scroll' (O.Fr. escroue; scrowe oder quaer, holi monne uroure 282 'scroll or book, the consolation of a holy man'): storie 'story'.

- (N) Medical: akoueren 'recover'; cancre 'CANKER'; letuarie 'electuary' (he haued so monie bustes ful of his letuaries 226); MEDICINE; REMEDY; sabraz (drinkeð bitter sabraz uorto akoueren his heale 364); SALVE; spitel-(uvel) 'leprosy'.
- (O) Hunting: tristre 'TRYST; station' (peos two undeawes, untrust and ouertrust, beod pes deofles tristren; tristre is per me sit mid be greahundes forte kepen be hearde [= to intercept the game] 332).
- (X) Miscellaneous: continuelement, sulement (note the French adverbial ending; sulement etstondeð sikerliche 266 'only stand firmly'); DOUBLE; as interjection, Deuleset 'God knows' (cf. O.E. Crist hit wat) 268.

Sawles Warde (see p. 86), which is only a short text, has a fair number of French words, most of them occurring also in the Ancrene Riwle. The following, however, may be specially mentioned: cunffessur 'confessor'; cunestable 'constable' (Wit pe husbonde, godes cunestable 247); lettre 'graphic symbol' (a gret boc of sunnen iwriten wid swarte smeale leattres 249 'a great book of sins, written with small black letters'); mall 'hammer' (duntes wid mealles istelet 253 'blows with hammers headed with steel'); ORDER vb. (i-ordret ant isette sunderliche, be an bune be oore 261 'ordered and established separately, one above the other ').

King Horn (see p. 86), one of the earliest English romances, has the following not very long list of French words; perhaps the most interesting are to be found under (A), (G), and (J).

(A) People: admirad 'emir' 89; BARONAGE; cosin 'COUSIN';

damesele 'DAMSEL'; geaunt 'giant'; gigours 'players on the

- gique'; maisteres; PALMER; PILGRIM; SAINT; SIRE (as form of address); spuse; squiere 'squire'; preie 'company, troop'; compaynye; curt. Finally mestere 'office, profession' (Steward, tak nu here / M1 fundlyng for to lere / Of pine mestere 229).
 - (B) Finance: RENT; RICH; trewage 'tribute'.
- (C) Buildings: CASTLE; CHAPEL; palais 'PALACE'; STABLE; ture.
- (D) Social: crune; dubbing (O.Fr. adober 'to dub a knight'); GRANT; HEIR; HERITAGE; HOMAGE; rengne 'kingdom'; SERVE, SERVICE.
 - (E) Religion : crois ; GRACE ; PRIME ; preie 'PRAY'.
- (F) Military: ARMS; ASSAIL; banere 'BANNER'; bataille 'BATTLE'; enemis 'ENEMIES'.
- (G) Nature: GRAVEL; ille 'isle'; PASSAGE 'pass, narrow way'; RIVER; roche 'rock' (Mod. Eng. rock is from the A.-N. form); flur 'flower'; ROSE.
- (H) Clothes, etc.: sclauyne 'pilgrim's robe'; also burdon 'pilgrim's staff'; LACE vb.
- (J) Household, etc. : chaere 'CHAIR'; couerture; cupe 'cup'; galun 'GALLON'; TABLE.
- (K) Physical: AGE; ariue 'ARRIVE'; chaungi 'CHANGE'; chere; colur 'COLOUR'; faille 'FAIL' (of sword); fine 'to end'; HASTE; PLACE; scapede 'escaped'.
 - (L) Food: feste 'FEAST'.
- (M) Moral and intellectual quality and action, etc.: auenture, mesauentur; bigile 'BEGUILE'; bitraie 'BETRAY'; BLAME; dol 'sorrow'; DEVISE vb.; dute 'fear' (DOUBT); ENVY; FOLLY; ginne 'device'; glotoun 'GLUTTON'; ioie 'JOY'; manere 'MANNER'; pris; PROVE; pruesse' prowess'; STRIFE.
- (P) Shipping: galeie 'GALLEY': Vs he dude lede / In to a galeie, / wip pe se to pleie 185.

As has already been indicated, the Owl and the Nightingale (see p. 87) contains but few French words; nor are these of great interest: (A) CLERK; CANON; maister; spuse; meoster 'trade'. (B) poure 'poor'; RENT. (C) STABLE (vor hors a stable, & oxe a stalle 629). (D) GRANT; plaid 'debate', plaidi 'argue'. (E) cundut' motet sung as the priest goes to the altar' (O.Fr. cunduit). (F) bataile; schirme 'to fight'; worre 'war'. (G) best 'BEAST'; faucun 'falcon'; flores 'flowers'; pie

'magpie'; waste 'waste, solitary' (on ore waste picke hegge 17). (J) PURSE. (K) crei 'crying'; cwesse 'squash, destroy'; falt 'falters' (min horte at-flip, & falt mi tonge 37); (ouer)quatie 'satiate'; siuep 'follows'; sure 'safe, secure, sure'. (M) acorde n.; a-foled 'befooled'; dahet 'misfortune' (often used as an expletive); disputing, sputing; foliot (?) 'foolish matter, trifle '(Ne singe ich hom no fohot 868); gelus 'JEALOUS'; ginne; grucching; ipeint 'painted'; merci; pēs; sot adj., sottes n., sot(hede) n. (X) certes 'certainly' adv.

The East Midland Genesis and Exodus and the Bestiary (see p. 87) have a smaller proportion of French than of Scandinavian words; in neither are they of a specialized type. The first has:

(A) People: buteler 'BUTLER'; CLERK; meister; mester

- 'office'; offiz 'office' (du salt ben ut of prisun numen, / And on din offiz set agen 2071); spies; tribu' tribe'.
- (B) Finance: RICH (richere he it leet dan he it fand 1280).
 (C) Buildings: scite 'CITY'; (h)ostel (and bead hem hom to is ostel 1056 'asked them home to his house'; And fond good grip and good hostel 1397); piler 'PILLAR' (a fair piler son hem on o nigt 3293 'a fair pillar shone on them by night'); PRISON; TABERNACLE: tur.
- (D) Social: BIGAMY (Bigamie is unkinde ding, / On engleis tale twie-wifing 449 'bigamy is an unnatural thing, in English speech twice marrying'); crune; GRANT; SERVE.

 (E) Religion: auter 'altar' (also alter, probably O.E.);
- CANTICLE; CIRCUMCISE; sacren (widuten ilc seuend clene der, / de he sacrede on an aucter 612 'except for every seventh clean beast, which he sacrificed on an altar'); IDOL, IDOLATRY.
 - (F) Military: gisarme.
- (G) Nature: CAVE; FIRMAMENT (do god bad ben de firmament / Al abuten dis walkne sent 95 'then God ordered the firmament to be spread all about the sky'); flum 'river' (đe flum iurdan 806; also de swarte flum, de dede se 1123); munt, mount 'MOUNT'; roche (in a caue[n] / de was dor in roche grauen 1138 'in a cave which was there dug in the rock'); CAMEL (him, and hise men, and hise kamel 1398); DESERT; dragun 'DRAGON' (fro euerilc dor crep a dragun 2924 (of the sorcerers' rods) 'from every one there crept a dragon'; also the O.E. draca: do wurd he drake dat ear was knigt 283, of

Lucifer); leun; flur 'flour'; fruit; Lentil; olie 'oil' (get on olige for tokning 1624 'poured on oil for a symbol'; OLIVE; SPICE.

- (H) Clothes: mentel.
- (J) Household, etc.: male 'coffer' (and held hem sperd in helles male 22); PLATE (ore hundred plates of silver fin 2370); PRESENT (and bedden him riche present 2273 'and offered him a rich present'; TABLE (tables of ston 3535).
- (K) Physical: feble; FIGURE (sag abraham figures ore / sondes semlike kumen fro gode 1006 'Abraham saw three figures, messengers, apparently, come from God'); FINE; fin 'end, death'; iurne 'JOURNEY, 'day's journey'; plenteo 'PLENTY'; SOLSTICE; SOJOURN (or was him oat surgerun ful loo 2696 'though that sojourn was full loath to him').
 - (L) Food: FEAST.
- (M) Moral, etc.: CHARITY; chast(hed); FAITH (Nu, bi de feid ic og to king pharaon 2187 'now, by the faith I owe King Pharaoh'); gelus (for ic am god, gelus and strong 3495); greuen 'GRIEVE'; grucchen 'grumble' (here gruching do god was lod 3318 'their grumbling was hateful to God'); hardi; lecherie; merci; orgel 'pride'; pais; pert 'knowing, clever'; pris; SPIRIT (a spirit ful of wit and schil 203). Arsmetike 'arithmetic'; astronomige; music (Iobal is broder song and glew, / Wit of musike, wel he knew 460).
- (N) Medical: lepre 'leprosy'; squinacy 'quinsy' (ða ðe swinacie gan him nun mor deren [= injure] 1188).

 The Bestiary has only eighteen French words: (A) PROPHET;
- The Bestiary has only eighteen French words: (A) PROPHET; spuse. (B) poure. (D) MARKET. (G) bec 'beak'; capun 'CAPON'; CAVE (caue ge haueð to crepen in / ðat winter hire ne derie 186 'a cave she (the ant) has to creep into, that the winter may not harm her'); cete 'whale' (ðis cete ðanne hise chaueles lukeð / ðise fisses alle in sukeð 397 'when this whale locks his jaws, he sucks in all the fishes'); cul 'rump'; dragon (ðe dragunes one ne stiren nout wiles te panter remeð ogt 622 'the dragons alone do not stir while the panther roars'); leun; panter 'panther' (panter is an wilde der / Is non fairere on werlde her 596); turtre 'turtle-dove'; venim 'venom'.
- (K) ROB. (M) gin 'device'; GRACE; SIMPLE (simple & softe beo we all 655 'let us all be simple and gentle').

1250-1300

The romance of Havelok the Dane shows that French influence was strong in the North-East Midlands by the middle of the thirteenth century. It has already been pointed out that Havelok has a large proportion of Scandinavian words, so that its foreign element is altogether very considerable. The names of fishes (under G) and of articles of food, wine, etc. (L), should be observed; there are also new words under (A):—

- (A) People: barun (erl and barun, dreng and swain 31) and barnage (his barnage dat was un-ride 2947 'his company of barons, which was very large'); burgeys 'BURGESS'; caynard 'rascal' (as form of address; O.Fr. cagnard); CHAMPION (with hem com mani champioun, / mani with ladde, blac and brown 1007); chanoun; CLERK; CONSTABLE; dam 'sir' (O.Fr. dam, dans, Lat. dominus); DAME; HERMIT; iustise 'JUSTICE'; mayster; PAGE; PATRIARCH; sergaunz 'retainers, SERGEANTS'; SIRE; strie 'hag, witch'. COURT; meyne 'household'; mester 'office'; parlement 'parliament'.
- (B) Finance: catel (For al was youen [= given], faire and wel, / pat him was leved [= left] no catel 225); powere, poure 'poor'; riche.
- (C) Buildings, etc.: BAR (And pe barre sone vt-drow / And caste pe dore open wide 1794); CASTLE; gronge 'farm, GRANGE'; PRIORY; TOWER.
- (D) Legal and social: CHARTER (and with pi chartre make us fre 676); eir 'HEIR', eritage, desheriten (Hwat wenden he desherite me? 2547 'why do they think to disinherit me?); per 'PEER' (but here in the sense of 'equal' physically: In Engelond was none hise per / Of strengpe 990); GRANT; REIGN; saisen 'seize, give possession' (her ich sayse pe / In al pe lond, in al pe fe [= property] 2518); SERVE; spusen; trone 'THRONE'; warant 'surety'.
- (E) Religion: aungel 'ANGEL'; auter 'alter'; beneisun 'BENISON' (panne he were set and bord leyd / And pe beneysun was seyd 1723), also malisun 'MALISON'; caliz; corporaus (pl.) 'altar-cloth, corporal'; croiz 'cross' (also the native $r\bar{o}d$); MIRACLE; pateyn 'PATEN'; preie 'PRAY'; sauteres.
 - (F) Military: ARMS (And with his hond he made him kniht, /

- And yaf him armes, for pat was riht 2925); ASSAIL (Asayleden him with grete dintes 1862); ANLACE (Hand-ax, sype, gisarm or spere, / Or aunlaz, and god long knif 2554); baret 'strife'; gisarm; gleiue 'sword'; skirming; talevas 'large shield'.
- (G) Nature: bise (gan a wind to rise / Out of pe north, men calleth bise 724); BEAST; grip 'griffin'; leoun; PALFREY; runci 'horse' (O.Fr. roncin); laumprei 'LAMPREY'; makerel 'MACKEREL'; playee; segges (?) 'cuttlefish' (O.Fr. seche); sturgiun 'STURGEON'; tumberel 'porpoise'; turbut; flour 'FLOWER'; rose; roser ('rose-tree' (pe heu is swilk in here ler / So is pe rose in roser 2919 'the colour in her face is like that of the rose on the rose-tree').
- (H) Clothes, etc.: charbucle 'carbuncle'; ioupe 'loose jacket' (O.Fr. jupe).
- (J) Household, etc.: cerge 'wax-candle'; male 'bag'; panier; tabour 'TABOR'.
- (K) Physical: aise 'ease' (panne was England at ayse 59); bout 'throw' (of putting the stone; O.Fr. bout); closen 'enclose' (And pat ich kom til Engelond, / Al closede ut intil min hand 1310); corune, croune 'crown' (of head); courre 'recover'; cri, crien; feeble; formen 'form' vb.; fyn 'end'; giuelen 'to heap up' (O.Fr. *geveler; With fish giueled als a stac 814); parted; pass; place; plente 'plenty'; rob; robber; saue'safe'; sembl(ing); strangle; strive; trusse vb.; uoyz 'voice'; utrage 'outrage' (O.Fr. out., ultrage); wait.
- (L) Food, etc.: broys 'broth, BROSE' (O.Fr. brouez, -ets; And y schal yeue pe ful fair bred, / And make pe broys in pe led [= cauldron] 924); claré 'claret'; FEAST; flaun 'pancake' (O.Fr. flaon); pastees; piment 'sweet spiced wine' (Pyment to drinke, and god clare 1728); simenels 'bread of fine flour'; super 'supper'; ueneysun 'venison'; wastel 'bread of the finest flour'.
- (M) Moral and intellectual, etc.: anuien 'to weary' (pat is pe storie for to lenge [= lengthen] / It wold anuye pis fayre genge 1735); BLAME n.; chiche 'mean' (And dide greype a super riche, / Also he was no with chiche 1763 'and did prepare a rich supper, as he was by no means niggardly'); conseyl 'COUNSEL'; curteys 'of the court, courteous' (Hire semes curteys

forto be, / For she is fayr so flour on tre 2917), curteysye; doute 'fear'; false; feith 'faith', fey; felony; fol n., fol adj. 'fool(ish)'; gent 'fair, noble'; glotun; greue 'GRIEVE'; ioie; LARGE 'liberal'; MERCY; NOBLE; payed 'pleased'; pleinte 'complaint'; preyse; pris 'worth'; tendre 'TENDER'; traysoun, traytour, trecherie. Gest (Nu have ye herd be gest al poru / Of Havelok and of Goldeborw 2984); romanz (Romanzreding on pe bok); storie; leteres (inscribed).

- (N) Medical: salue 'salve'.
- (P) Shipping: CABLE (stronge cables and ful fast 710).
- (X) Miscellaneous: allas; dapeit 'misfortune' (as expletive); maugre 'in spite of' (We sholen at pis dore gonge, / Maugre pin, carl, or outh longe 1789 'we shall go in at this door in spite of you, fellow, before very long'); marz 'March'; hasard, mine, games at dice.

The more courtly *Floris and Blauncheflur* has hardly a larger or more interesting French element than *Havelok*. Attention may be drawn to some of the entries under (C), and the list of precious stones under (G).

- (A) Persons: ADMIRAL 'emir'; baruns, barnage; belamy (as form of address); burgeis; chaumberlein; dame; duc; marchaunt 'MERCHANT'; mariner (He hadde wind and weder ful god, / be Mariner he zaf largeliche 71); mascun 'MASON'; oste 'HOST' (And for his niztes gestinge / He zaf his oste an hundred schillinge 126); PORTER; seriauns; SIRE (as address); SPY; compaygnie; mein 'household, retinue'.
 - (B) Finance: marchaundise 'MERCHANDISE'; riche.
- (C) Building: BARBICAN; chaumbre 'CHAMBER'; CITY; paleis 'fine house' (Uaire hi habbep here in inome / At one paleis supe riche 87 'they have taken rooms at a good hotel'); piler 'PILLAR'; PRISON; squere '(carpenter's) square'; schauntillon 'mason's rule; scantling' (Ber wip pe squire and schauntillun, / Also pu were a gud Mascun 325); stage 'floor, stage'; tūr.
- (D) Social and legal: acupement 'accusation'; GRANT; honur (haue pis [a gift] to pin honur 111), deshoneur; iugement 'JUDGMENT'; parage 'high birth' (per bup seriauns in pe stage / pat seruep pe maidenes of parage 256); SERVE; spusen.
 - (E) Religion: oresun; parais; passiun; preie.
 - (G) (Nature) MARBLE (be porter he fond anone perate, /

Sittende one a marbel ston 155); cassidoines 'chalcedonies'; charbugle 'carbuncle'; crestel 'crystal'; jacinctes; oniche 'onyx'; saphirs; sardonies 'sardonix'; topaces; flur.

- (H) Clothes, etc.: meniver 'MINIVER'; pane 'robe' (He lat bringe a cupe of seluer / And eke a pane of meniuier 110).
 - (J) Household, etc.: bacin; LAMP; TORCH; towaille 'TOWEL'.
- (K) Physical: aquiten 'deprive'; chaungep; chere; cler 'CLEAR' (In pe tur per is a welle / Supe cler hit is wip alle 224); crie; cuntenaunce; demure 'delay'; departen 'DEPART, part' (He custe hem wip softe mupe, / Al wepinge hi departep nupe 12); durep 'endures'; entermeten 'to meddle with, take part in'; failli 'fail'; fin 'death'; parte 'share'; peire 'PAIR'; PLACE; plenere 'in full' (Eche day in al pe zere / pe feire is iliche plenere 216); semblaunt; TENDER (Of fless of fiss of tendre bred 27); sucur 'SUCCOUR'; SUFFER.
- (L) Food: soper 'supper' (Riche soper per was idizt 23; Me pinchep bi pine chire / pu nert nozt glad of pi sopere 169).
- (M) Moral and intellectual: amur 'love'; angussus 'painful'; chantement 'enchantment'; coniureson 'conjuration'; couetus 'COVETOUS'; culvert 'villainous' (pe porter is culvart and felun 247); cunsail; curtais (pe burgeis / pat was wel hende and curtais 116); dute 'to fear'; druerie 'friendship'; felun, felonie; enuius 'ENVIOUS'; föl; ginne, engin 'device' (ENGINE); GRACE; gref 'GRIEF'; HARDY; ioie; large(liche) 'generously'; mercy; pite 'PITY'; pris 'worth'.
- (X) Miscellaneous: escheker 'chess-board' (EXCHEQUER) (and bidde pe pleie at pe escheker 344).

The two texts which will be taken next, to conclude this half century, are both of a religious character. The first is a group of homilies, the *Kentish Homilies* (E.E.T.S., 49), the second a verse treatment of the story of *Iacob and Iosep* (see p. 94). The French vocabulary in each of these is of a very ordinary type; the homilies have a larger proportion of French words than the other. Only the less common words in each are given here.

Kentish Homilies: (A) sergant 'servant' (po serganz pet servede of po wyne 29); (B) MARKET (so ha kam into pe Marcatte so he fond werkmen 33); SUMMON (po dede he somoni alle po wyse clerekes 26); (G) TEMPEST (a great tempeste of winde 32); (K) amunten 'to mount up, rise' (swo amuntet si gode biddinge

to gode 28 'so a good prayer mounts up to God'); aparailen 'to prepare' (APPAREL) (hi hedden aparailed here offrendes 26 'they had prepared their offerings'); APPEAR (apierede te po prie kinges 26); COMMENCEMENT (pis was pe commencement of po miracles of ure louerde 30); cors 'corpse'; defenden 'preserve' (DEFEND) (Mirre . . . defendet pet Cors pet is mide i-smered 28); DELIVER (pet he us deliuri of alle eueles 33); DISSEVER 'separate' (nis noon descuerd pardurabliche fram gode 31 'no one is separated from God eternally'); MOVE; NATURE (be nature of Man 35; al-so bet water is natureliche schald [= cold] 30); pardurably; pelrinage; PERIL; PERISH (lord saue us for we perisset 32); SUCCOUR (se pe sucurede hem ine pa peril 32); travail 'work' (clepe po werkmen and yeld hem here travail 33 'call the workmen and pay them for their work'); VISIT (go ine pelrinage, uisiti pe poure 28); (M) acumbren 'perplex, encumber '(yef se deuel us wille a-cumbri purch senne [= sin] 33); amonestment 'admonishing'; assoil (forleted [= leave] yure sennen and per of biep a-soiled 32); auenture 'chance; chance happening' (so inel auenture pet wyn failede 29 'by ill chance the wine was exhausted'); anuien 'ANNOY' (herodes . . . was michel anud 26); a-resun (O.Fr. araisonner) 'to call to account' (po a-resunede ure lord pe paens [= pagans] 35); bunte 'BOUNTY, bounteous gift'; CONTRARY; cuuenable 'suitable' (gold, pet is cuvenable yefte [= gift] to kinge 27);
DIVERS (as we habep i-seid of divers wordles [= worlds] 35); orgeilus 'proud' (of po euele manne good man, of pe orgeilus umble 30); SERMON (pet formeste sarmun pet euerte made in erpe 31); umble 'Humble'; (N) leprus 'Leprous'; Malady; verray 'true' (scawede pet he was verray prest 27).

Iacob and Iosep: (A) botiler 'BUTLER'; menestral

Iacob and Iosep: (A) botiler 'BUTLER'; menestral 'MINSTREL' (hem oftok a menestral, his harpe he bar arugge 366 'a minstrel overtook them; he carried his harp on his back); SIR (bou ssalt, sir baxtere [= baker], anhonged be ful heye 266; (D) quiten 'free' (al his gult ich him forzive & quite of bende [= bonds] 303); contre 'COUNTRY'; GRAPE (wrong hit of pe grapes ful of win cler 257 'wrung it (a cup) full of clear wine from the grapes'); SCARLET; sabelin 'sable' (Clopes of skarlet & of sabelin 505); gris 'grey fur'; fer (O.Fr. vair, Lat. varius), a kind of fur; cofre 'COFFER'; PURSE.

FOURTEENTH CENTURY

At the beginning of the fourteenth century many hundreds of French words, which still survive, are already in use, besides others which have now disappeared. They are not limited to special parts of the country, but are apparently used as freely in the north and west as in the east and south. It would seem that to the fourteenth century itself we owe that vast number of abstract French derivative words, most of which are still common, with the suffixes -ance, -ence; -ant, -ent; -tion; -ity; -ment; and the prefixes con-, de-, dis-, en-, ex-, pre-, pro-, trans-, and so on. Many of these are recorded first between 1350 and 1400, though some are in use before, and others do not appear until the fifteenth century or later. There is a considerable difference between the number of such words used in an early fourteenth-century work, and in, for instance, the writings of Chaucer.

The Cursor Mundi, which dates from about 1300, and is a distinctly Northern work, contains slightly over 6 per cent of French words. Without attempting to give all the French forms, of which the author makes use, we may give a number of examples of words which still survive (these are in the majority), to show that the vocabulary is by no means obscure or exotic, or specializing in technical terms of any kind. (The classification is as before.) The words are given in their modern forms.

- (A) Abbot, advocate, ancestors, aunt, bachelor, caitiff, clergy, enchanter, friar, juggler, mayor, master, merchant, mariner, marshall, messenger, nation, nephew, official, page, person, parson, pilgrim, prince, people, rebel, squire, virago.
- (B) Bargain, debt, extortion, payment, profit, purchase. ransom.
 - (C) Abbey, dungeon, grange, lodge, parlour, pavilion, tavern.
- (D) Assize, sceptre, common, concord, diadem, empire, evidence, exile, franchise, gibbet, govern(or), grant, heritage, homage, judge, jurisdiction, justice, majesty, marriage, ordain. order, pardon, reign, warrant.
- (E) Baptism, baptist, penance, pray, repent, sacrifice, sermon, trespass.

- (F) Archer, challenge, conquer, victory, war.
- (G) Abysm, air, branch, cedar, channel, cypress, fruit, lion, lioness, leopard, marble, metal, mountain, mule, ocean, oil, olive, pasture, plant, scorpion, tempest, valley, venom, venison.
 - (H) Collar, kerchief, mantle.
- (J) Basket, chain, curtain, faggot, lamp, mirror, table, vessel.
 (K) Assemble, avail, avoid, boil, circle, chase, close, cover, element, entry, faint, front, genealogy, generation, hasten, haunt, interval, irregularity, journey, join, labour, melody, member, morsel, music, nature, noise, nourish, offer, odour, pain, pale, pass, perceive, peril, plain, presence, pursue, rage, receive, respond, restore, save, succour, stable, stature, substance, suffer, tender, touch, vanish, visit, wait.
 - (L) Cider, dinner, liquor, supper, vinegar.
- (M) Account, affair, allow, argue, assay, assent, avow, certain, despite, error, fierce, fortune, generally, gentle, gracious, grief, honest, honour, humility, idiot, impossible, jealous, joy, lesson, manner, matter, mercy, marvel, noble, opinion, parchment, peace, piteous, positive, praise, preach, precious, prologue, proper, prove, purpose, reason, romance, solace, treason, vengeance, virtue, villainy.
 - (N) Gout, medicine, ointment, remedy.

The Handlyng Synne of Robert of Brunne (see p. 100) has a fairly commonplace French vocabulary, in which abstract words play the greatest part. The following analysis gives the French words of the first thousand lines only, but they are typical of the whole :--

- (A) People: caytyfe, clerkys, cumpanye, dan 'sir' (In petyme of gode dane Ione / Of Camelton 67), disciple, ermyte, felun, frere 'friar', maister, profyte, seyntes (the native halves is also used), termagaunt, vyrgyne.
 - (B) Finance: payde, pore, profyt, ryche.
 - (C) Buildings: celle, cyte, pryorye.
- (D) Social and legal: asyse, auctoryte, behaunce 'pomp', commaundementys, comaundyd, commune 'common', coroune, cunnant 'covenant', custome, gouerne, granted, maystry, omage, powere, seruy, somoune.
- (E) Religion: bapteme, byble, chastyed, lay 'law', matyns, maumette 'idol', maumetry, orysouns, passyun, penaunce,

preyers, preyden, relygyoun, rependyd, repentaunce, sacramentys, sacryfyse, sacrylege, seruyse, solemnyte 'solemn feast', trespas.

(F) Military: cuntek 'contest'.

- (G) Nature: cristal (for 'scrying'), cuntre, flour-gerland, frutys, fyrmament, menbre, oure 'hour', pasture, pyy (beleue nouzt yn pe pyys cheteryng 355), tempest, vynys.
- (H) Household, etc.: bacyn, barre (in the compound forbarre 'to shut out'), 'pick-axe' (Mattok is a pykeys; the Mod.
- Eng. form is from this, with the ending assimilated to axe).

 (K) Physical: a-party 'apart', apertly 'openly', auaunsed, auayle, chaunge, crye, delayde, dyspende 'spend', destroyed, dysmembre, faylep, febylnesse, florysyngge, fyn (n.), hastyly, hauntes (vb.), karol, leysere 'LEISURE', parceyued, peyn, plente, pryuyte, quyte 'QUIT', receyue, sauep, secede 'CEASED', stable (adj.), strangled, suffryd, surfeture, touchep, trauayle, troteuale 'idle talk', turment, turmentours, vengaunce, vse, weyte.
 - (L) Food: festys.
- (M) Moral and intellectual, etc.: acorde, afflyccyouns, affyaunce, anoyd, amende, blame, certeyn, charge 'importance', charme, chaunce, corage, coueytyd, cunsel, curteys(y), dampnacyun, defaute, deseyue, deseuable, doute, enchesoun 'cause', ensample, entent, erre, feyp, folehardy, folye, gentry 'gentility', gentyl(men), gracys, greue, greues(nesse), gyle (n.), gylys (vb.), ioye, kas, lecherye, lessun, manere, manteyne, mercy, meruelys, mesure, mysauenture, noy, nygromancy, ordeyned, outrage, point (pe twelve poyntes of shryfte 25), preuyd, prow, pyte, quentyse 'dexterity, clever action', resun, reuelacyun, scorne (vb.), speciali, spice 'species' (dedly synne, / In any spyce pat we falle ynne 28), spyryte, stody, temptacyoun, temptyd, tent, tysyn 'entice', tresoun, tycement, vanyte, veyn, vylanye.
 - (X) Miscellaneous: certys (adv.), verement (adv.).

To compare with this we may take a fairly typical fourteenth-century romance, Sir Beves of Hamton. The French element in this is perhaps of a slightly more picturesque character than that of the *Handlyng Synne* or the *Cursor Mundi*, but this is largely due to the fact that a higher proportion of the words are obsolete or archaic and many of them have become known to us with the

atmosphere of the Middle English romance surrounding them. It must not be forgotten, either, that many of the romances were translated from, or based on, French originals, which must have affected the English writer's vocabulary, and induced a tendency to use foreign words especially in such phrases and contexts as became the romance-writer's stock-in-trade. Sir Beves was in origin an English hero, and a very popular one; but the versions of his story which are extant in English all derive from French. The work is, however, a good specimen of its type, and the author, in his use of French terms, does not give the impression of dealing in *clichés*. The largest groups of French words, as will be seen, occur under (A) People, a remarkable collection of mediaeval personalities, (K) Physical, a very miscellaneous group, (M) Moral and intellectual (as usual a long list); but the lists under (F), including terms for arms and armour, under (C) Buildings, etc., and (J) Household, etc., are all of interest. Illustrations are given here freely, since this is the only fourteenth-century romance which will be dealt with in detail.

(A) People: amy 'friend, lover' (pow schelt after her wedde to spouse / To pin amy 144); amiral 'emir'; bacheler (What dones man ertow, bacheler? 3731 'what kind of man are you, young man?'); baroun; borgeis; chaumberlain; chaumpioun; clerk (Icham a clerk and to scole zede 1325 'I am a clerk and went to school'); cuntasse; cosin (Wolkome, leue cosin 2577' welcome, dear cousin'); dam 'mother' (Damme, for-zeue me pis gilt 3465); dame, madame (the latter only as form of address); damesele; dekne 'deacon'; doce-amur 'sweet love' (he hire clepede doceamur 161); duke; emperur; ermite; forster; feloun; gailer; garsoun 'boy' (His sone, pat was a proud garsoun 2991); geaunt; losenger 'flatterer'; marchal (Gii, is fader, was me marchal 3507); marchaund (Marchaundes pai fonde . . . / And solde pat child 506); meister; masager 'messenger'; menstral (bouzte a fipele, so saip pe tale, / For fourti panes, of one menstrale 3912); ostesse (of an inn); page; painim; palmer; patriark (of Jerusalem); pautener 'vagabond'; pilgrim; porter; prinse; priour (not prior in the monastic sense, but 'one who presides': pow schelt pis dai be priour / And beginne oure deis 2122); recreant (ich me zelde, /

Recreaunt, to pe, in pis felde 1042); roboun (A roboun hit stal 4059 'a robber stole it'); seint; sauagene 'savage' (I have herde of sauagenes 2363); seruaunt; sire (Sire Gii: of Hamtoun he was sire 9); soudan 'sultan'; spouse; squier; tauarnere; treitour; truant ('go hom, truant', pe porter sede); virgine; wardaine. Baronage; meini; ost (a prikede out before is ost 214); parlement (be comin acent / par was comin parlement 1715); peple (zour stiward gret peple hadde 943); route (his kniztes stoute, / Foure and twenti in a route 842).

- (B) Finance: catel (Wip pat and wrp more catel / He made pe castel of Arondel 3542); pouer 'poor'; pouerte (whan a man is in pouerte falle, / He hap fewe frendes wip alle 2594); ransoun; stor 'store' treasure' (O.Fr. estor, Lat. staurum: pe palmer nas nouzt wipouten store 1295); tresor; wage (for pow bringest fro hire mesage, / I schal pe zeue to pe wage / A mantel 1156); warisoun (of Germanic origin; related to the Norse loan-word garsum: Wide whar ichaue iwent / And me warisoun ispent 2142).
- (C) Building: barre (pai schette anon everi gate / Wip pe barres 4344); barbican; castel; chapel; chaumber; cite (toward pe cite of London town 4479); des 'dais'; garite 'watchtower; upper floor; GARRET'; logge, a temporary shelter; paviment (ded a fel on pe paviment, in Tower Street); palais; pavilon (pai pizte pavilouns, before a castle to be besieged, 3356); prisoun; solere 'sun room, balcony'; stable; tour; touret (a tower / pat was in pe castel iset 2100).
- (D) Legal and social: bandoun 'authority' (Ich do me alle in pe bandoun 1044); banist 'banished' (pis forbanniiste man / Is come to pe land azan 4309); barony (Of Almaine, is owene barouny 3331); cheualrie (wip wonder-gret cheualrie 'company of knights' 2217); cleimen (a cleimede his eritage 1344); comaundement; comin 'common'; cordement; croun; daunger (I nel namore of pe daunger 1132 'I will have no more of your domineering'); desereten (deseretep Robaunt, pin eir 4265 'disinherit Robaunt, your heir'); eir; eritage; empire; feute 'fealty' (dede him feute & omage 3469); graunte; lay 'law'; meistre 'mastery'; office; omage; parage 'high birth'; riale 'royal'; seinori (ich hatte Beuoun / & cleymep pe seinori of Hamtoun 3070); sele 'seal' (pe prente of ure sele 1244); serven, seruise; spusaille; usage (Ase hit was

lawe & rizt vsage 3470); waraunt (And ich wile zour waraunt be 704).

- (E) Religion: benison (God zeue vs alle is benesoun 4620; also: And on here knes set hem down / And bad her moder benesoun 4474; also malisoun: I praie Mahoun / par fore zeue pe is malison 3696); crois; mamerie (? for maumetry, in the sense of 'heathen temple': Out of a mameri a sai / Sarasins come gret foisoun / pat hadde anoured here Mahoun 1350); praie, praier; prosessioun; riligioun (an house he made of riligioun 4613); sauiour; trinite.
- (F) Military: actoun 'a quilted jacket, worn under the armour' (O.Fr. aqueton); armen (al iarmede to be teb 3644 'armed to the teeth'); armur; asaut; bacinet; baner; be-seged; bataile; champe 'field', in heraldry (And zaf him a scheld gode & sur / Wip pre eglen of asur, / pe champe of gold ful wel i-dizt / Wip fif lables of selver brizt 974), also asur, and lables; crestel 'crest' (pat sercle of gold & is crestel 4175); dart; defendaunt 'defending' (Boute hit were him self defendaunt 660); fauchon (Beues smot down / Grander is scheld wip is fachoun 1768); gonfanoun (borrowed in O.Fr. from O.H.G. gund-fano) 'banner' (A gonfanoun wel stout and gay / Josian him brouzte for to bere 976; baner is used of the same flag, 966); hauberk; just 'joust' (And to pe iustes pai gonne ride 3961); lance (Wip here launces pei gonne mete 1748); mace 'club'; masnel (pouzte have slave sire Beuoun / Wip an vge masnel 4503); plate (Hauberk, plate and aktoun 1761); scomfit 'defeat' (Josian lay in a castel / & sez pat scomfit everich del 890); springal, a machine for hurling stones (Wip bowes and wip springal 4346); stör (O.Fr. estor, estour, from O.H.G. (ki)stör 'battle') (Beues toulde vnto him pan / How pat stour ended & gan 722); talevas, a kind of shield (pe children [= young men] pleide at pe taluas, / And to be justes bai gonne ride 3960); targe 'shield' (of Germanic origin; cf. the Norse loan in O.E., targa; he kepte his strokes wip is targe 4214); tornement, torneien vb. (mani a gentil knizt / Torneande rizt in pe feld 611; Wile we tornaie for pat levedy [= lady]? 3774); tronson 'shaft, staff, TRUNCHEON' (And on a tronsoun of is spere / pat heued a stikede for to bere 827); ventail, part of the front of the helmet (Al to-brosten is ventaile 2835); venue 'meeting; combat' (Beues in pat ilche

- veneu, / pourz godes grace & is vertu . . . 811); vintaine (her comep a vintaine / Al prest an hondred knizte 2962); visor (down rist pe viser wip is swerd 4179); werre (brused in werre & fizt 62).
- (G) Nature: caue 'cave': contre(i); cost 'coast' (Ase he com ride be a cost 1023); forest; yle 'isle'; pleine; riuere. Marbel (A faire chapel of marbel fin 4609). Best (hert and hinde / And other bestes 2366); deistrer 'war-horse'; dragoun (also drake, a Latin loan in O.E.: Swich bataile dede neuer non . . . Of a dragoun per beside, / pat Beues slouz per in pat tide, / Saue sire Launcelet de Lake, / He fauzt wip a fur drake 2599-604); dromedary; egle; faucoun (ase fresch to fizt / So was pe faukoun to be flist 736); groin (O.Fr. groing) 'snout' (A spanne of be groin be-forn / Wip is swerd he hap of schoren 815); hakenai 'hackney' (Ac nim a lizter hakenai 1255); lyoun; mule; palfrei; rabit (O.Fr. arabi, arabiz 'Arab horse'; Sire Gii lep on a rabit . . . And sire Miles wip gret randoun / Lep vpon a dromedary 4481); rounsi (Beues let sadlen is ronsi 757); somer 'pack-horses' (Men graipede cartes & somers; cf. O.E. sēamere, also from Lat. sagmārius). Herbe (I know an Erbe in pe forest 2301); chesteine 'chestnut' (he reinede his hors to a chesteine 1699; cf. O.E. cesten-beam); medle 'medlar' (O.Fr. mesle(r); Vnder a faire medle tre 1287).
- (H) Clothes, etc.: bordon 'pilgrim's staff' (zaf him is hors ... / For is bordon and is sklauin 2066); ermin (pei kottede here forers of ermin 3721); forers 'fur coats'; keuerchef; mantel (A mantel whit so melk; / pe broider is of tuli selk / Beten abouten wip rede golde 1157); quilte (O.Fr. cuilte, Lat. culcitra; Foure hondred beddes of selk echon / Quiltes of gold par vpon 3996); sklauin 'pilgrim's cloak'; (vn)lacen (And vnlacede his ventail 4236).
- (J) Household, etc.: arsoun 'saddle-bow'; boiste 'box'; boute 'button' (Ne vailede him nouzt worp a boute 100); chaine; chare (Josian wip meche care / peder was brougt in hire chare 1490); cord (be a kord of a solere 1532 'by a rope from a balcony'); couertine 'curtain'; couertour; flaket 'flagon' (Bred and flesc out of is male / And of his flaketes win & ale 1298); galon (And of is helm a drank pore / A large galon oper more 2816); lamp; levour 'lever' (He took a levour in is hond 1861); male; tabour (Trompes he herde and tabour 383); torge

'torch'; towaile (on a towaile zhe made knotte riding 3220); trompe 'trumpet'.

(K) Physical: afin 'in the end'; age; anguysse; arive (par pe dragoun gan ariue / At Cologne 2659 'when the dragon arrived at Cologne'), also riven; asaile; ascapen; aspien; balaunce (Almest is lif was in balaunce 1562); cacchen 'CATCH', chace 'CHASE' (the first from A.-N. cachier, the second from O.(Centr.)Fr. chacier, both from Late Lat. *captiare); chargen (An hors icharged wip golde rede 152); cercle; cler (A morwe, whan hit was dai cler 755); contenaunse; coulour; companie (hadde bore him gode companie 1988); cornere; craue; crie; damage; defende; delai; delivren; demeinen 'behave'; demere 'delay'; discure 'reveal'; destruzen; discriue; ensemlen 'assemble'; face; faile (wipouten faile; also the Fr. phrase saunfaile); failen (whan pe rop failede in is hond 1631); fasoun 'appearance, fashion'; feble (Man, whan he falleb in to elde / Feble a wexep 47); feint; fin (And pat I wet finliche wel 4052); foisoun (whan Beues hadde eten gret foisoun 1299); fors; front 'forehead' (His frount be-fore hard & strong 2662); gay; glacen 'slip' (down of pe helm pe swerd gan glace 4177); hast, -eli; jurne 'day's journey' (pat is henne four iurne 2227); keuere 'recover'; kors; kours (Whan kniztes mest an hors ride, / A gret kours par was do grede [= announced] / For to saien here alper stede 3514); language; large; miseise; noise; nombre; pairen 'impair'; parten; parti (be fele parti 2048 'in many regions'); pas 'pace' (In is wei he rit pas for pas 847); pase 'pass'; pawe (Wip his pawes he rent adoun / His armour 2439); pein; perseven; peril; plein (I schal winne hire in plein bataile 920); pise 'piece' (His spere barst to pises pore 790); place; pleint; plente; poynt (And to his hert pe poynt prast 2463); pray 'prey'; presenten vb.; prest 'ready'; priuite 'privacy', priue(liche); quarter (ech a dai quarter of a lof bred 1420); ragen; rampen (Two lyouns per com yn pare / Grennand and rampand with her feet 2379); randoun 'rush, force'; reseven; retret 'backward step'; riot 'riot, revel'; ronde (God pat made pis world al ronde 1373); saien "assay, try'; saven; semlaunt; sewen' follow'; sokour; sojurnen; squachen 'squash' (pe medwe squauzte of her dentes 1753); stat 'state, condition'; stout (O.Fr. estout, from M.Dutch;

Beues stoutliche... Haf vp is heued fro pe ground 683); sofren; sur 'sure', surte; sostenaunse; teise 'fathom' (Vnder perpe twenti teise 1417); tempest 'attack'; trossen 'pack up'; vailen; vge 'huge'; visage (Who is pis wip pe grete visage? 2585; the giant Ascopard).

- (L) Food, etc.: brochen 'broach' (let brochen reynessh wyne 2303); diner, dinen; piment; sause; sopere; spisorie; vitaile.
- (M) Moral and intellectual, etc. : (i) States of mind, qualities, etc.: bounte; corteis, corteisie; delit; distresse; doul 'sorrow'; doute; egre; enui; errur; gent (Lemman, zhe seide, gent and fre 707); gentil; glori; gile; glotoun; grace; ioie; lel 'faithful' (Beues rod on Arondel / pat was a stede gode and lel (590); mautalent (for-zaf him alle is mautalent 3978); merci; nice 'foolish'; onour; pēs; pite; prowesse; semple; vertu; vile; vileinie; (ii) Mental action, etc.: agreued; amende; anuie; apaien; asaien; avengen; asent; betrayen; blame; bost; cas; certaine; charme; confort; consaile; defaut; desmeien; despit 'scorn'; disiren; divis 'device'; ensoin 'excuse'; engyn 'guile'; entent; gien 'guide, direct' (To riche erl, pat schel pe gie / And teche pe of corteisie / In pe 30upe 364); greven; hardi; meintene; manere; mervaile; paramur adv.; preisen; pris; proven; queint 'clever, cunning'; queintise; renable 'reasonable' (pat renabliche koupe frensch speke 2974); renoun; resoun; scornen; solas, solacen; tresoun; vengen; viktori; (iii) Writing and other arts: fable; letter; mesage; minstralcie (Zhe hadde lerned of minstralcie, / V pon a fibele for to play / Staumpes, notes, garibles qau 3906-8); nygremancy; parchemin (Lo her, pe king Ermin / pe sente pis letter in parchemin 1384); portraien (Portraid al wip rosen rede 3786, of a shield); prent 'imprint'; romance.
- (N) Medical: caudel (Dame, let make him a caudel 3248); fysik; maladie; oyniment; poisoun; venim; sirgirie.
- (X) Miscellaneous: allas; doble; aviroun (In pis contre aviroun 2709); saundoute; sertes; verament.

Not infrequently there are passages in the romances where the French words appear in great numbers, one after another, overshadowing the native element almost entirely. This happens most frequently in descriptions of a more or less technical character, such as the list of precious stones in *Ipomadon*:—

At the laste was browght forthe for pe nonys A cupe, sett wyth precyous stonys, Wyth cassidoins, pat were clere; The cupe was good and precyous, The stonys good and vertuous, And dyamovndes, pat were dere, The crapet and the sersolitte, The emeraud and the ametite, The ruby and the safere, Perle, topyas, and mony claspys, And on fowre sydes were dyueres haspis, That queynte and sotell were, etc. (Il. 2648–59);

or descriptions of hunting scenes, as in the Anturs of Arther :-

Thay kest of hor cowpullus, in cliffes so cold, Cumfordun hor kenettes, to kele hom of care; Thay felle to the female dure, feyful thyk fold;

The king blue a rechase, Folut fast on the trase, With mony seriandys of mase, That solas to see;

or the well-known passages in Sir Gawayne and the Grene Knight; or descriptions of clothes or armour:—

Her gide that was glorius, was of a gresse-grene; Her belte was of blenket, with briddus ful bold, Beten with besandus, and bocult ful bene: Her fax in fyne perré, was frettut and fold, Her countur-felit and hur kelle were colurt ful clene With a croune cumly, was clure to be-hold; Hur kerchefes were curiouse, with mony a proud prene Hur enparel was a-praysut, with princes of myste;

Than the knyzte in his colurs was armit ful clene, With a crest comely, was clure to be-hold, His brene, and his basnet was busket ful bene, With a bordur a-boute, alle fo brent gold;

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His mayles were mylke quyte, enclawet full clene, His stede trapput with that ilke, os true men me told; With a schild on his shildur, of siluer so schene, With bore-heddis of blakke, and brees full bold; His stede with sandelle of Trise was trapput to the hele.

> Opon his cheueronne be-forn, Stode as a vnicorn, Als scharpe as a thorn, An nanlas of stele.

In stele was he stuffut, that sterne on his stede, With his sternes of gold, stanseld on stray; His gloues and his gamesuns gloet as the gledes, A-rayet aure with rebans, rychist of raye; With his schene schinbandes, scharpest in schredus. His polans with his pelidoddes were poudert to pay, Thus launce opon lofte that louely he ledus.

Anturs of Arther, xxix-xxxi.

Romances of the fifteenth century still display a similar tendency to descriptive passages containing a large proportion of French words; the following rather long extract from *The Squyr of Love Degre* includes a considerable vocabulary of dress, food, wine, hunting, sailing, music, etc. The king of Hungary is speaking to his daughter, wishing to comfort her for the (supposed) death of her lover:—

'To-morowe ye shall on hunting fare,
And ryde, my doughter, in a chare,
It shal be covered with velvet reede,
And clothes of fyne golde al about your hed,
With damaske white, and asure blewe,
Wel dyapred with lyllyes newe;
Your pomelles shal be ended with gold,
Your chaynes enameled many a folde;
Your mantel of ryche degre,
Purpyl palle, and armyne fre;
Jennettes of Spayne, that ben so wyght,
Trapped to the ground with velvet bright;
Ye shall have harp, sautry and songe,
And other myrthes you amonge;

You shall have runney and malmesyne. Both *upocrasse*, and *vernage* wyne, Mount rose and wyne of Greke, Both algrade, and respice eke, Antioche, and bastarde. Pyment, also, and garnarde: Wyne of Greke, and muscadell. Both clare, pyment, and Rochell. The reed your stomake to defue, And pottes of osey set you by. You shall have venison ybake, The best wylde foule that may be take. A lese of grehound with you to stryke, And hert and hynde and other lyke, Ye shal be set at such a tryst That herte and hynde shall come to your fyst. Your dysease to dryue you fro, To here the bugles there yblow, With theyr begles in that place, And sevenscore raches at his rechase. Homward thus shall ye ryde, On haukyng by the ryvers syde, With goshauke, and with gentyll fawcon, With eglehorne and merlyon. Whan you come home, your men amonge, Ye shall have revell, daunces, and songe; Lytle chyldren, great and smale, Shall syng, as doth the nyghtyngale. Than shall ye go to your evensong, With tenours and trebles among; Threscore of copes, of damaske bryght; Full of perles they shal be pyght; Your aulter clothes of taffata, And your sicles all of taffetra. Your sensours shal be of golde, Endent with asure many a folde. Your quere nor organ songe shall wante, With countre note, and dyscant, The other halfe on orgayns playing,

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With yonge chyldren full fare syngyng, Than shall ye go to your suppere, And sytte in tentes in grene arbere, Wyth clothes of aras pyght to the grounde, With saphyres set and dyamonde. A cloth of golde abought your heade, With popinjayes pyght with pery reed, And offucers all at your wyll, All maner delightes to bryng you till. The nightingale sitting on a thorne, Shall synge you notes both even and morne. An hundreth knightes, truly tolde, Shall play with bowles in alayes colde, Your disease to drive awaie, To se the fisshes in poles plaie; And then walke in arbere up and downe, To se the floures of great renowne, To a drawbrydge than shall ye, The one halfe of stone, the other of tre: A barge shall mete you, full ryght, With twenty-four ores full bryght, With trompettes and with claryowne, The fresshe water to rowe up and downe. Than shall ye go to the salte fome, Your maner to se, or ye come home, With eighty shyppes of large towre, With dromedaryes of great honour, And carackes with sayles two, The swetest that on water may goo, With galyes good upon the haven, With eighty ores at the fore staven. Your maryners shall synge arowe Hey how and rumby lowe. Than shall ye, doughter, aske the wyne, With spices that be good and fyne, Gentyll pottes with genger grene, With dates and deynties you betwene. Forty torches, brenynge bryght,

Into your chambre they shall you brynge, With muche myrthe and more lykyng. Your costerdes covered with whyte and blewe, And dyapred with lyles newe. Your curtaines of camaca, all in folde, Your felyoles all of golde. Your fester pery at your heed, Curtaines with popinjayes white and reed. Your hyllynges with furres of armyne, Powdred with golde of hew full fyne. Your blankettes shall be of fustyane, Your shetes shall be of clothe of raune. Your head-shete shall be of pery pyght, With dyamondes set and rubyes bryght. Whan you are layde in bedde so softe, A cage of golde shall hange alofte, With longe-peper favre burnning, And cloves that be swete smellyng, Frankensence, and olibanum, That whan ye slepe the taste may come. And yf ye no rest may take, All night minstrelles for you shall wake.' 'Gramercy, father, so mote i the, For all these thinges lyketh not me.'

Obviously no form of recreation was possible without the help of the French language.

But for the best examples of French terms for food, we have to go to the fifteenth-century cookery books (E.E.T.S., 91). Here are two or three recipes chosen at random:—

(i) Oystres in gravey: Take almondes, and blanche hem, and grinde hem, and drawe hem porgh a streynour with wyne, and with goode fressh broth into gode mylke, and sette hit on pe fire and lete boyle; and cast pereto Maces, clowes, Sugur, pouder of Ginger, and faire parboyled oynons my[n]ced; And pen take faire oystres, and parboile hem togidre in faire water; And then caste hem there-to, And lete hem boyle togidre til pey ben ynowe; and serue hem forth for gode potage.

(ii) Pike in galentyne: Take a pike and seth him ynowe in

gode sauce; And couche him in a vessell, that he may be y-caried yn, if pou wilt. And what tyme he is colde, take brede, and stepe hit in wyne and vinegre, and cast there-to canell, and drawe hit porgh a streynour, And do hit in a potte, And caste there-to pouder peper; And take smale oynons, and my[n]ce hem, And fry hem in oyle, and cast there-to a fewe saundres, and lete boyle awhile; And cast all this hote vppon pe pike, and cary him forth.

(iii) Cryspes 1: Take white of eyren, Milke, and fyne floure, and bete hit togidre, and drawe hit thorgh a streynour, so that hit be rennyng, and noght to stiff; and caste there-to sugur and salt, And then take a chaffur ful of fressh grece boyling; and pen put thi honde in the batur and lete the bater ren thorgh thi fingers into pe chaffur; And when it is ren togidre in the chaffur, and is ynowe, take a Skymour, and take hit oute of the chaffur, and putte oute al the grece, And lete ren; And putte hit in a faire dissh, and cast sugur thereon ynow, and serue it forth.

And finally, a dish on a somewhat lavish scale, called, with reason, (iv) Grete pyes: Take faire yonge beef, And suet of a fatte beste, or of Motton, and hak all this on a borde small; And caste thereto pouder of peper and salt; And whon it is small hewen, put hit in a bolle, And medle hem well; then make a faire large Cofyn, and couche som of this stuffur in. Then take Capons, Hennes, Mallards, Connynges, and parboile hem clene; take wodekokkes, teles, grete briddes, and plom hem in a boiling potte; And then couche al pis fowle in pe Coffyn, And put in enerych of hem a quantite of pouder of peper and salt. Then take mary, harde yolkes of egges, Dates cutte in ij. peces, reisons of coraunce, prunes, hole clowes, hole maces, Canell, and saffron. But first, whan thou hast cowched all thi foule, ley the remenaunt of thyne other stuffur of beef a-bought hem, as pou thenkest goode; and then strawe on hem this: dates, mary, and reysons, etc., And then close thi Coffyn with a lydde of the same paast, And put hit in pe oven, And late hit bake ynogh.

This reminds us of Chaucer's cook, with his 'poudre-marchaunt tart and galyngale', and it is time that we turned our attention to Chaucer and his French element.

The proportion of French words used by Chaucer varies,

sometimes being ten or eleven per cent, and sometimes rising as high as fifteen per cent. In some of his writings, as in the more philosophical parts of his translation of Boethius, and in his *Treatise on the Astrolabe*, many of the words used are of a learned type which can never have been current in the ordinary colloquial language; the *Astrolabe* in particular, written for his 'litel sone', must indeed have been 'harde' for Lowys's 'tendir age of x yere to conceyve'. Here are four passages, one from the Canterbury Tales, being the beginning of the Nun's Priest's tale; the second from *Boece*; the third the *Balade to Rosemounde*; the last, seven stanzas from the concluding part of *Troilus and Criseyde*.

(i) A poure wydwe, somdel stape in age, Was whilom dwellyng in a narwe cotage Beside a greve, stondynge in a dale. This wydwe, of which I telle yow my tale, Syn thilke day that she was last a wyf, In pacience ladde a ful symple lyf. For litel was hir catel and hir rente. By housbondrie of swich as God hire sente She found hirself, and eek hire doghtren two. Thre large sowes hadde she, and namo: Three keen and eek a sheep that highte Malle. Ful sooty was hir bour, and eek hire halle, In which she eet ful many a sklendre meel; Of pounaunt sauce hir neded never a deel. No deuntee morsel passed thurgh hir throte, Hir diete was accordant to hir cote; Repleccioun ne made hir never sik, Attempree diete was al hir phisik, And exercise, and hertes suffisaunce. The goute lette hire no-thyng for to daunce, Napoplexie shente nat hir heed; No wyn ne drank she, neither whit ne reed;

¹ e.g. 'Further over thei seyn that the infortunyng of an ascendent is the contrarie of these forseide thinges. The Lord of the Ascendent sey thei that he is fortunat whan he is in gode place fro the ascendent, as in an angle, or in a succident where as he is in hys dignite and comfortid with frendly aspectes of planetes and wel resceyved; and eke that he may seen the ascendent; and that he be not retrograd ne combust ne joyned with no shrewe in the same signe; ne that he be not in his discencioun,' etc.

Hir bord was served moost with whit and blak, — Milk and broun breed. - in which she found no lak; Seind bacoun and somtyme an ev or tweve. For she was, as it were, a maner deve. A yeerd she hadde, enclosed al aboute With stikkes, and a drye dych withoute, In which she hadde a cok, heet Chauntecleer. In al the land of crowvng nas his peer. His voys was murier than the murie organ On messe daves that in the chirche gon; Wel sikerer was his crowyng in his logge Than is a clokke, or an abbey or logge. By nature knew he eche ascencioun Of the equynoxial in thilke toun; For whan degrees fiftene weren ascended, Thanne crew he that he myghte nat been amended. His coomb was redder than the fyn coral, And batailled as it were a castel wal: His byle was blak, and as the jeet it shone; Lvk asure were his legges and his toon: His navles whiter than the lylye flour, And lyk the burned gold was his colour.

(Nun's Priest's Tale, 4011-54.)

(ii) (Fortune is speaking): I envyrounde the with all the habundance and schynynge of alle goodes that ben in my ryght. Now it liketh me to with draw myn hand. Thow hast had grace as he that hath used of foreyne goodes; thow hast no ryght to pleyne the, as though thou haddest outrely forlorn alle thy thynges. Why pleynestow thanne? I have doon the no wrong. Richesses, honours, and swiche othere thinges ben of my right. My servauntes knowen me for hir lady; they comen with me, and departen whan I wende. I dar wel affermen hardely that, yif tho thynges of whiche thow pleynest that thou hast for-lorn hadden ben thyne, thow ne haddest nat lorn hem. Schal I thanne, oonly be defended to usen my ryght? Certes it is leueful to the hevene to maken clere dayes, and after that to coveren the same dayes with dirke nyghtes. The yeer hath eek leve to apparaylen the visage of the erthe, now with floures, and now

with fruyt, and to confounden hem som-tyme with reynes and with coldes. The see hath eek his ryght to ben som-tyme calm and blaundysschyng with smothe watir, and som-tyme to ben horrible with wawes and with tempestes. But the covetise of men, that mai nat be staunched, — schal it bynde me to ben stidfast, syn that stidfastnesse is uncouth to my maneris? Swiche is my strengthe, and this pley I pleye continuely. I torne the whirlynge wheel, with the turnynge sercle; I am glad to chaungen the loweste to the heyeste, and the heyeste to the loweste.

(Boece, Book ii, Prosa 2.)

(iii) To Rosemounde

Madame, ye ben of al beaute [the] shryne As fer as cercled is the mappemounde, For as the cristal glorious ye shyne And lyke ruby ben your chekes rounde. Therwith ye ben so mery and so jocounde That at a revel whan that I see you daunce, It is an oynement unto my wounde, Though ye to me ne do no daliaunce.

For though I wepe of teres ful a tyne, Yet may that wo myn herte nat confounde; Your seemly voys that ye so smal out-twyne Maketh my thoght in joye and blis habounde. So curteisly I go, with love bounde, That to myself I sey, in my penaunce, Suffyseth me to love you Rosemounde, Though ye to me ne do no daliaunce.

Nas never pyk walwed in galauntyne ¹
As I in love am walwed and y-wounde,
For which ful ofte I of my-self dyvyne
That I am trewe Tristam the secounde,
My love may not refreyd be nor afounde;
I brenne ay in an amorous plesaunce.
Do what you lyst, I wyl your thral be founde
Though ye to me ne do no daliaunce.

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(iv) Go litel book! Go, litel myn tragedie! Ther God thy maker yit, or-that he he dye, So sende might to make in som comedie! But, litel book, no making thou n'envye, But subgit be to alle poesye! And kis the steppes wher-as thou seest pace Virgile, Ovide, Omer, Lucan and Stace!

And for ther is so gret diversite
In English and in writing of our tonge,
So prey to God that non miswrite thee,
Ne thee mismetre for defaute of tonge!
And, red wher-so thou be or elles songe,
That thou be understonde God biseche!
But yet to purpos of my rather speche.

The wraththe, as I began you for to seye, Of Troilus the Grekes boughten dere; For thousandes his hondes maden deye, As he that was withouten any pere Save Ector in his time, as I can here, But weylawey, save only Goddes wille, Ful pitously him slough the fierse Achille.

And whan that he was slayn in this manere His lighte goost ful blisfully is went Up to the holwnesse of the eighte spere, In convers leting everich element; And ther he saugh with ful avisement Th'erratik sterres, herkning armonye With sounes fulle of hevenissh melodye.

And down from thennes faste he gan avise
This litel spot of erthe that with the see
Embraced is, and fully gan despise
This wrecched world, and held al vanite
To respect of the pleyne felicite
That is in hevene above. And at the laste,
Ther he was slayn his loking down he caste,

And in himself he lough right at the wo Of hem that wepen for his deth so faste, And dampned all our werk, that folwen so The blinde lust the whiche that may not laste, And sholden all our herte on hevene caste. And forthe he wente, shortly for to telle, Ther-as Mercurie sorted him to dwelle.

Swich fyn hath the this Troilus for love! Swich fyn hath al his grete worthinesse! Swich fyn hath his estat real above! Swich fyn his lust, swich fyn hath his noblesse! Swich fyn, this false worldes brotelnesse! And thus bigan his loving of Criseyde. As I have told, and in this wise he deyde.

(Troilus and Criseyde, v, 1786-1834.)

In these extracts, the proportion of French words is respectively (i) 13.5 per cent; (ii) 12.3 per cent; (iii) 15.6 per cent; (iv) 11.6 per cent. This makes an average of 13.2 per cent. Possibly a little less should be taken as Chaucer's real average, since the proportion in Rosemounde seems to be rather unusual. Chaucer is not, however, the writer with the highest proportion of French loans; both Langland and Lydgate, for instance, have slightly higher averages. Nor is it true, as has sometimes been said, that Chaucer himself introduced large numbers of French words into English. The majority of his words were already in use well before his time. Lydgate is probably more of an innovator than Chaucer; but his introductions are very much of a rather exaggeratedly 'learned' type, or can be ascribed to a rather strained poetic diction, and many of them were never established in English, either literary or colloquial.

In dealing with the French loans of the later period of English we shall be limiting ourselves for the most part to such words as have survived in ordinary spoken or written English. But the Middle English period, as well as other centuries, introduced also very many words of a technical character, connected with the law, with heraldry, with arts and crafts, such as jewel-work, etc., and these technical vocabularies still survive. Hundreds

of legal words of French origin (chiefly Anglo-Norman) were adopted into English after English became officially the language of the courts, and the influence of Anglo-Norman remained strong long after this, as it was still used for many legal affairs for several centuries. Some of these legal terms made their way into the non-technical language, and everyone is familiar with such words as remainder, rejoinder, assets, entail, while of course very many were never exclusively legal, though perhaps have always been most frequent in a legal connexion, e.g. try, judge, examine, prove, issue, demur, etc. Many heraldic terms are now unfamiliar to most people, though some are fairly widely current, e.g. azure, quatrefoil, cinquefoil, chevron; others are used commonly in non-heraldic senses, e.g. bend, chief, displayed, label, lozenge, proper; some are fairly easy to guess, e.g. rampant, roundel, argent, sable; but many people would find it impossible to say what was meant by mullet, saltire, caltrap, garb, fess, mascle, flaunch, maunch, gules, passant, guardant, formée, pattée, paly, semé, raqulée, gemel, gorged, segreant, engrailed.

Modern French Words in English

Naturally, the French language did not remain static during the whole period from the Norman Conquest of England down to the fifteenth century. By about 1500 many of the changes typical of Modern French had taken place, and words borrowed after this reached English speakers in a different form from that which they would have had if they had been adopted, say, three hundred years earlier. For instance, in early Middle English words were borrowed from French containing the sound-group ch [tf] (as in Eng. child), e.g. chief, chivalry, duchess, chase, torch; and [dž] (as in gem), e.g. judge (both consonants), just, journey, large; these consonant-groups became respectively [] and [ž] in later French, and words borrowed after the period of this development came into English with these sounds, e.g. champagne, chef, chaperon, sachet (cf. satchel); négligé, garage. Again, O.Fr. oi (in some cases from earlier ei) became first ué, and then, perhaps by the sixteenth century, ua (wa), e.g. Mod. Fr. loi, roi, poids, joie (earlier lei, rei, peids; joi); Middle English loans have the diphthongs ei, oi (e.g. M.E. lei 'law',

preie 'PREY', ioie 'JOY', POISE, NOISE); but with such forms should be compared soirée, noisette, moiré, all of recent introduction, and also turquoise, as compared with the early modern turkis, a Middle English loan where the -i- represents the usual English development of unstressed oi. (This word, however, often has now a spelling pronunciation with oi. Similar spelling pronunciations may occasionally be heard in the words porpoise, tortoise, though the historical [pōpes, tōtes] are still the normal forms; these have an alternative development of M.E. unstressed oi, but porpis and tortis, like turkis, may be found in Early Modern English, just as turkis sometimes has [-es], e.g. in Milton's turkas.)

Further, by the end of the fifteenth century, the majority of the changes which distinguished Modern from Middle English had taken place, so that, whereas French words borrowed before 1450 or so had to undergo, with native words, sound-changes which transformed them completely from what they had been in their parent language, words adopted after this were too late for these developments, or most of them, and were less completely divorced from their original forms, such differences as there are being due more to sound-substitution than to soundchange. For example, the words fine, nice, quile, which had the vowel [i] (as in Mod. Eng. feed) in M.E., now have developed a diphthong [ai] along with the native find, mine, write, etc.; but words like machine, clique, pique, elite did not become liable to this change, since when they were borrowed the English tendency to diphthongize [i] to [ai] had passed. As has been pointed out in the introduction, the closeness of the pronunciation of a borrowed word to that of its own language depends upon the presence in the borrowing language of the native sounds of the word, or upon the acquaintance of the speaker with the language borrowed from; also to some extent upon the popularization of the word. Thus Modern Standard English does not normally have nasalized vowels, so when a word such as confrère, or coupon, or envelope, is adopted, the English speaker may substitute for the nasalized vowel the nearest English equivalent, probably on; if he does, however, speak French, he may retain the French vowel. Again, Mod. English does not contain an exact equivalent of the French short a,

and the English speaker will usually substitute for it the Standard English [æ]; even one who speaks French fairly accurately will use this vowel instead of the French one in a word which has become very common, such as garage (first syllable), camouflage. Similarly, where French has \acute{e} , an English speaker will replace it by his nearest sound, the diphthong [ei], e.g. glacé, éclat, café, papier mâché, and so on; the same diphthong does duty also for French ê in fête, etc.

Almost all borrowings from French are, as we have already found, either from Northern French, or from the Central French dialect which became the standard dialect of France, but English has a few words from other French dialects, most of them. however, coming into this language by way of Central French. The most important of these are from the southern type of French known as Provencal. The earliest seems to be marque (in the phrase 'letters of marque', licence given to a privateer), which dates from 1419; this is from Prov. marca, from the verb marcar 'to seize as a pledge'. The importance of Southern France as a wine-growing country is reflected in the three words spigot (Prov. *spigot, cf. espiga 'spike'), which appears in Late Middle English; rack 'to draw off (wine) from the lees' (especially a Gascon word, and apparently the only word now surviving to indicate our connexion with Gascony; the original form was arracar, from raca 'husks of grapes'), recorded first in English in 1460; and ullage, the difference between the capacity of a cask or bottle and the amount of liquor which it contains; this is much later than the first two, not being found till 1749; the Provencal word is ulhage, from the verb ulha 'to fill up to the bung'. The word mistral, first met with in English in 1604, is still restricted in sense to the Mediterranean coast of France, and has not been extended in use to other types of wind; but lucerne (Prov. luzerno) has become fairly widespread; it dates from 1626. Lingo is apparently Prov. lingo, lengo 'language'; it appears first in 1660. Gavotte came over with numerous other French terms of society in the second half of the seventeenth century; it represents Prov. gavoto, which is from gavot, a name used for an inhabitant of the Alpine districts; it is recorded

¹ A few Northern forms were borrowed in Late Middle English, e.g. task, and twel (of drum)

first in 1696. Although the minstrels and poets of Southern France exerted indirectly a considerable influence on the English literature of the Middle Ages, we do not find any influence on the vocabulary from these regions until the eighteenth century, but then with reference to the earlier period; troubadour dates from 1727 (the French trouvère is even later, 1795), the Provencal form being trobador. Connected with this is the less familiar sirvente, a form of verse used by the troubadours, dating from 1819. Another eighteenth-century loan is charade (Prov. charrada 'chatter'), 1776: and to the nineteenth century belong nougat (1827; see other French words of this period), the rare picayune (Prov. picaion), at one time the name for a small coin in the French-speaking district of Louisiana, and later (chiefly American slang) used to denote something mean or worthless; this is found first in 1852. Finally, there is one more reflection of an industry of Provence; this is pébrine, hardly naturalized in English, from French, from Prov. pebrino, the name of a silkworm disease (1870).

Swiss-French dialects have given us chamois, as early as 1560; chalet, not till 1817; and crétin (French, from Swiss crestin), from 1779. The first word has been completely naturalized (in pronunciation and sometimes also in spelling) in shammy-leather, though for the animal itself a pseudo-French pronunciation [sæmwa] is generally used. (The word is ultimately of Germanic origin, and is related to the German Gemse; it is probably from a Gmc. dialect of that part of the Alpine district to which Romance dialects afterwards spread.)

In spite of our long connexion with the Channel Islands, only one English word can be definitely ascribed to the French dialect spoken there. This is ormer (1672), applied to a special kind of shell-fish found on the coasts of the islands.

It has already been indicated that Old French borrowed a fairly large number of words from Germanic, especially from Old High German, and many have been pointed out as having passed on into English during the Middle English period. Such words are still being borrowed in the Modern period, and we may give as examples harangue, spavin, skirmish, stallion, tack n. (all from the fifteenth century); vogue (sixteenth century); ratchet, soup, stockade (seventeenth century), and so forth. In the same

way many other words which came into English from French are ultimately from languages more remote, showing by their passage through French what great influence the knowledge, arts, and commerce of France have had on this country. Most of these words will be dealt with under the languages from which they came.

A point which must be insisted on before we consider in detail the later loans from French, is that a word may be borrowed, lost, and borrowed again, or, if not lost, borrowed again in a different form and perhaps with a slightly different sense. For instance, the words potage and pottage represent two different periods of borrowing, the latter dating from Middle English. The same is true of valet, with its two pronunciations: that with final -t, from the M.E. period, and that with a final vowel, approximating more or less to the Modern French. Corsage in the later fifteenth century (pronounced with final -idge) meant 'the shape of the body', but when borrowed afresh in 1857 had the sense of part of a woman's dress.

Before starting on the sixteenth century we may mention a few words from the late fifteenth century, which seem to have been in continuous use since then in approximately their modern forms, and which give no impression of archaism. Such are serviette, redeem (Fr. redimer), mademoiselle (cf. M.E. damesel, etc.; demoiselle is sixteenth century); serge; tapis (though this may have been reborrowed later).

In the sixteenth century, the most important loans are military and naval. To this period belong trophy 1513; pioneer (originally 'foot-soldier') 1523; jacquerie (used chiefly historically with reference to the peasants' revolt in France in 1357, but also in transferred sense) 1523; brigantine 1525; pilot (ultimately Greek, passing through Italian into French) 1530; sally 1542; colonel 1548 (another form, coronel, borrowed in the following century; from this comes the modern pronunciation); guidon, a type of flag (orig. Italian) 1548; corsair 1549; volley 1573; cartridge 1579; perdu (orig. of a sentry placed in a dangerous position) 1591; rendezvous 1591; apeak (from the French nautical phrase à pic) 1596. Terms which may be related to trade are palliasse 1506; livre 1553; indigo 1555; sou 1556;

1578 (in the sense of 'braid'; the more usual modern sense does not appear till 1758); portmanteau 1584. The following may be considered 'social' terms: demoiselle 1520 (it was borrowed again, with a different application, in 1687, as a zoological name for a certain kind of crane); viceroy 1524; sirrah (now obsolete) 1526; partisan 'supporter' (from an Italian dialect) 1555; minion, orig. 'small, delicate', or as noun 'darling'; also mignon 1556, perhaps with the French pronunciation; the former is anglicized as [minjen]; bourgeois 1564; vogue 1571; esprit 1591; genteel 1599 (cf. gentle, borrowed in M.E. from O.Fr. gentil: the -ee- of genteel represents Fr. -i-); madame 1599 (madam, with the stress on the first syllable, is a M.E. loan); and perhaps we may include here racket 1500, possibly Arabian in origin. Potage 1567 (cf. the M.E. loan pottage), fricassee 1568, and rennet (a kind of apple, Fr. reinette) 1568, are all Tudor borrowings. Words relating to art and literature are rondeau 1525 (cf. the earlier roundel; scene 1540 (first with the meaning 'scenery'); grotesque 1561; hautboy 1575 (the spelling oboe is an Italian representation of the French pronunciation; this is not found till 1700); quatorzain 1583. Finally a few miscellaneous words: piquant 1521, and pique (in the sense of 'quarrel') 1532; promenade 1567 (in the sense of 'walking'; as 'place for walking' it is recorded in 1648); cache 'hiding-place' 1595; moustache 1585 (this is a French version of an Italian mostaccio, which also appears in Tudor English as mustachio 1585; O.E. has a Gmc. word cenep); machine 1549; and the anatomical term fontanelle 1541.

During the seventeenth century, social, literary, and commercial relations with France were very close; English writers imitated French writers, and, particularly after the Restoration there was a widespread fashion for introducing French words and phrases into ordinary conversation; something of this can be seen in the drama of the time, and it appears also in the dates of introduction of many French words, from the latter part of the reign of Charles I, and from the last forty years of the century. The number of words recorded for the first time between 1600 and 1640 is not very large; again the most important are the military, naval, and diplomatic: fanfare 1605; pratique 1609;

cartouche 1611; stockade 1614; parole 1616; rencontre 1619 (the form rencounter is earlier, 1523); dragoon 1622; brigade 1637: platoon 1637; besides cachet 1639. Social terms include: monseigneur 1600 (monsieur dates from 1500); spa. in a general sense, 1610 (it is used with reference to Spa, in Belgium, in 1565); coquette 1611; étui 1611; table-d'hôte 1617; fainéant 1619; accolade 1623; hauteur 1628; flambeau 1632; reprimand 1636. Art, literature, etc.: rôle 1606 (also spelt roll); paysage 1611; parterre 1639 (for a garden-bed; as part of a theatre, not till 1711). Miscellaneous: unique 1602; sabot 1607; absinthe 1612 (as name of plant; as a liqueur, not till 1854). 1644-1700: Military, naval, and diplomatic: carbine 1605; reveillé 1644; mêlée 1648; envoy 1666; aide-de-camp 1670; carabineer 1672; glacis 1678; redan 1684; commandant 1687 (chiefly of foreign commanders); cheval-de-frise 1688. People and things: concierge 'custodian' 1646; pastille 1648; cabaret 1655 (the sense of 'entertainment', etc., is not recorded till 1915); curé 1655; plafond 1664; tourniquet 1695; attic 1696; fiacre 1699 (named from the Hôtel St. Fiacre in Paris; St. Fiachra was a Celtic saint of the eighth century, so the word is ultimately Celtic); vinaigrette 1698. Games and dancing: capot (a term in piquet) 1651; ballet 1667; quart (as a term at cards, 1672; in fencing, 1692; Mod. quart, the measure, is a M.E. loan); loo (abbreviated from lanterloo) 1675; chicane 1676; rigadoon 1691; pool 1693. Art and literature: crayon 1644; arabesque 1656; burlesque 1656 (orig. Italian); memoirs 1659; bas-relief 1667; aubade 1678 (orig. Spanish); nom-de-plume 1679; group 1686; tableau 'picture' 1699. Natural products: aigrette 1645; manganese 1676; varec 1676; guillemot 1678; iargonelle 1693. Dress, textiles, etc.: cravat 1656 (orig. 'a Croat'); chagrin, shagreen 1656 (in the figurative sense, 1847); moire 'mohair' 1660; paduasoy 1663; shalloon (from the place-name Chalons) 1678; ratteen 1685; surtout 1686; denim (= serge de Nîmes) 1695; mousseline 1696 (but the anglicized muslin in 1609); batiste (from a personal name) 1697. Food and drink: bisque 1647; soup 1653; haricot (= ragout) 1653; bouillon 1656; champagne 1664; salmagundi 1674; compote 1693. Fashionable social terms: invalid n. 1642 (the adj. inválid, 1635, is direct from Latin); repartee 1645; forte n.

1648; liaison 1648; complaisance 1651; mélange 1653; reverie 1653 (already in M.E., but now reborrowed); naïve 1654; décor 'ornament' 1656 (as a term of the theatre, not till 1927); démarche 1658; façade 1656; rapport 'relationship' 1661 (the phrase en rapport appears in 1818); contour 1662; en passant 1665; malapropos 1668; doyen 1670; penchant 1672; dishabille 1673; double entendre 1673; spirituelle 1673; suite 1673 (= train of followers; of rooms, 1716; of furniture, not till 1851); métier 1674; canaille 1676; faux pas 1676; pis aller 1676; routine 1676; nonchalance 1678 (the adj. in 1734); cortège 1679; contretemps 1684; beau n. 1687; reservoir 1690; rouleau (of coins) 1693; par excellence 1695; tête-à-tête 1697; verve 1697; ménage 1698. Miscellaneous: patois 1643; ratchet 1659; louis 1689.

In the eighteenth century, the French words on the whole tend to belong to the first quarter or the last quarter. In the last decade there appear a number of words having special reference to the French Revolution, such as émigré 1792, guillotine 1793, carmagnole 1796 (as nickname for a French soldier; in its first sense, of a song and dance of this period, it is recorded first in 1827), régime 1789 (in the phrase the ancient régime, representing French l'ancien régime; for 'regimen' it had already appeared in 1776), and noyade (first in 1819). Many of the military terms are to be associated either with the wars of the reign of Queen Anne, or with the Napoleonic wars, fewer to the Seven Years' War. In this century terms for food and cooking, for clothes and textiles, are specially noticeable; there are also a considerable number of 'social' terms, and we also find the beginning of the mountaineering terms of French origin, which become more numerous in the next century.

Military: caisson 1704; pas 1704 (as a term in fortification; in the sense of 'precedence' it is used in 1707); enfilade 1706; bivouac 1706 (this is ultimately from Swiss-German Beiwacht); pâté (fortifications; the sense of 'pasty' is later); enceinte 1708; corps 1711; lateen (sail; Fr. voile latine) 1727; terrain 1727; manceuvre 1758; abattis 1766; ricochet n. 1769; barbette 1772; echelon 1793; espionage 1793; tirailleur 1796; depôt 1794; sortie 1795; chasseur 1796; tricolor 1798 (first as revolutionary flag); then, at the beginning of the nineteenth

century, feu de joie 1801; fusillade 1801; revet 1812; razee (of warship) 1803; chaussée (high-road in France, etc.) 1817.

People: clique 1711; solitaire 'recluse' 1716; savant 1719; chaperon 1720 (it had been borrowed earlier in the sense of 'hood'); précieuse 1727; pierrot 1741 (pierrette not till 1888); confrère 1753 (a re-borrowing; it had already been used in M.E.); soubrette 1753; femme de chambre 'lady's maid' 1762; protégé 1778; martinet 1779; abbé 1780; colporteur 1796.

Buildings, furniture and other objects: chaise 1701; escritoire 1706; envelope 1707; entresol 1711; salon 1715 (French from Italian; saloon, which is probably directly from Italian, is found in 1728; salle in 1762); bouquet 1716; gadroon, a pattern used in architecture, 1723; bureau 1720 ('office'; as 'desk' in 1742); mansard 1734; canteen 1737; diligence ('coach') 1742; fauteuil 1744; épergne 1761; pavé 1764; ormolu 1765; boulevard 1772; château 1789; pisé 1797.

Dancing and games: pirouette 1706; carte, quarte (fencing) 1707; croupier 1707; roulette 1734; cotillion 1766; figurant(e) (ballet-dancer) 1790; valse 1796.

Literature, art, music: critique 1702; roulade 1706; belles-lettres 1710; bouts rimés 1711; connoisseur 1714; faience 1714; coterie 1738; vaudeville ('a popular, topical song') 1739; morceau 1751; vignette 1751; dénouement 1752; papier maché 1753; précis 1760; brochure 1765; conservatoire 1771; jongleur 1779 (historical, with reference to mediaeval literature); nuance 1781; raisonné 1777; trouvère 1795 (cf. jongleur; also troubadour, among words from Provençal); silhouette 1798.

Geographical, rivers, mountains, mountaineering, etc.: débris 1708; cul-de-sac 1738; glacier 1744; avalanche, crampon, moraine (all in Coxe's *Travels in Switzerland*) 1789; embouchure 1760; plateau 1796.

Animals and plants: chevrotain (a small musk-deer), loris 1774 (both in Goldsmith's *Natural History*); grison 1796. cachou 1708 (cf. cashew); beurré (pear) 1741; aubergine 1794 (in a book on Surinam).

Dress, textiles, etc.: grisette (grey fabric) 1700; velours 1706; pelisse 1718; tarlatan 1727; toupee 1727; chenille 1738; pompon 1748; rouge 1753 (earlier with reference to Heraldry);

moquette 1762; polonaise 1773; chignon 1783; epaulette 1783; corduroy 1787; bandeau 1790.

Food and cooking: casserole, croquette, fricandeau, méringue, ramekin, rissole, tureen 1706; ragout 1710; praline 1727; matelote 1730; liqueur 1742; salmi 1759; plat 1763; blomange 1769 (this is the form on which our modern pronunciation depends; it is a shortened form, either from French or from the M.E. loan blancmanger); cuisine 1786; déjeuner 1787; aspic 1789; bechamel 1796; noyau 1797.

Colours, etc.: brunette 1712; bistre 1727; celadon 1768; chatoyant 1798.

Medical, etc.: sac 1741; curette 1753; grippe ('influenza') 1776; migraine 1777.

Social: picnic 1748; etiquette 1750; début 1751; fête 1754; entrée 1782; monde (society) 1765.

Personal qualities, behaviour, etc.: sang-froid 1712; outré 1722; récherché 1722; éclat 1741; distrait 1748 (Lord Chesterfield); empressement 1749; diablerie 1751; gauche 1751; morale 1753 ('moral principles'; first used of troops in 1831); persifiage 1757; ennui 1758; farouche 1765; passé 1775; intriguant 1781; insouciance 1799.

Miscellaneous: ensemble 1703; écu 1704; goffer 1706; carte blanche 1707 (figuratively, in 1766); encore 1712; menagerie 1712; hors d'œuvre (adv. 'out of the ordinary', Addison) 1714 (with reference to meal, 1742); police 1730 (civil administration; in modern sense, 1800); entrepôt (commercial depôt) 1721; détour 1738; hors de combat 1745; potpourri (of flowers) 1749; embonpoint 1751; soi-disant 1752; vis-à-vis 1753; piaffe 1761 (of horse); chef-d'œuvre 1762; douceur 1763; soupçon 1766; poste restante 1768; souvenir 1775; route 1779 (cf. the earlier rout); coup 1791; gramme 1797.

The nineteenth century introduced more French words into this country than any period since Middle English. The most numerous are those under the headings of Art and Literature, etc., Dress and Textiles, etc., the latter group, with Furniture, etc., are perhaps the most typical of the century; it may be observed that the majority of the words in these two groups belong to the period between 1830 and 1860. Food and Cooking

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are well represented, and there is a fair number of general political terms.

Military: matériel 1814; parados 1834; sabreur 1845; barrage 1859; fourgon (baggage-wagon) 1848; communiqué 1852; chassis 1869 (part of gun-carriage; as part of a motorcar, it is found first in 1903); franctireur 1870; mitrailleuse 1870; melinite 1886.

People: roué 1800; habitué 1818; troupe 1825 (troop is an older loan); raconteur 1829; attaché 1835 (the compound attaché-case appears in 1904); garçon 1839 (waiter); gamin 1840; chargé d'affaires 1850; clientèle 1860; chauffeur 1899.

Buildings, institutions, etc.: morgue 1821; oubliette 1819; abattoir 1840; lycée 1865; crèche 1882.

Furniture, and other things of Use and Ornament: chiffonier 1806; aventurine (a kind of glass) 1811; parquet 1816; secretaire 1818; jalousie 1824; reticule 1824; sachet 1838; bric-à-brac 1840; jardinière 1841; persiennes 1842; châtelaine 1851; cheval-(glass) 1855; portière 1855; étagère 1858; carte de visite 1861; passe-partout 1867.

Dancing and games: chassé vb. 1803; écarté 1824; acrobat 1825; misère 1830; glissade 1843; can-can 1848; croquet 1858 (a Northern French word, corresponding to *crochet*); planchette 1860; bézique 1861; écossaise 1863; baccarat 1866; coryphée 1866; lacrosse 1867.

Literature, art, music, and architecture: carillon 1803; fabliau 1804 (historical); résumé 1804; littérateur 1806; chevet 1809; sanserif 1830; cliché 1832 (metal stereotype used in wood-engraving; in the figurative sense, first in 1892); flamboyant 1832; rococo 1836; atelier 1840; format 1840; renaissance 1840; guilloche 1842; repertoire 1847; grisaille 1848; motif 1848 (as trimming for dress, 1882); baroque 1851; repoussé 1851; hachures (map-making) 1858; foyer 1859; nocturne 1862; cloisonné 1863; dinanderie 1863; entr'acte 1863; baton 1867; aquarelle 1869; cor anglais 1870; matinée 1880; aperçu 1882; macabre 1889 (M.E. has this word in the phrase danse macabre); fin de siècle 1890; première 1895.

Mountaineering: ravine 1802; aiguille 1816; crevasse 1819 (cf. the M.E. loan crevice); couloir 1855; moulin 1860; sérac

1860; gendarme 1883 (in the sense of 'policeman' this appears in 1796); névé (field of snow) 1884; massif 1885.

Animals and plants: beche-de-mer 1814; guenon 1838; grivet 1859; fer-de-lance 1880; griffon 1882. Immortelle 1832; marguerite 1866.

Dress, textiles, etc.: rosette 1802; fichu 1803; chemisette 1807; pouffe 1817 (a head-dress; as a cushion, 1884); moiré 1818; lorgnette 1820 (lorgnon 1846); jabot 1823 (shirt-frill; for women, 1881); crêpe 1825; blouse 1828; crinoline 1830; costumier 1831; décolleté 1831; trousseau 1833; lingerie 1835; négligé 1835; peignoir 1835; redingote 1835 (but first borrowed by French from English riding-coat); bijou 1838; revers 1838; delaine 1840; appliqué 1841; guipure 1843; paillette 1843; crochet 1848; béret 1850 (Basque cap); passementerie 1851; modiste 1852; piqué 1852; postiche 1854; corsage 1857; beige 1858; genappe (Belgian place-name) 1858; écru 1869; picot 1869; brassard 1870; cretonne (Normandy place-name, Creton) 1870; frou-frou 1870; tricot 1872; layette 1874; chiffon (first in the plural, 'frills,' etc.; as material, in 1890); torchon 1879; pince-nez 1880; rivière 1880; ficelle 1882; suède 1884; crépon 1887; voile 1889.

Food and Cooking: café 1816 (coffee-house); gourmet 1820; à la carte 1826; restaurant 1827; menu 1837; chef 1842. Chasse-(café) 1800; réchauffé 1805 (first in the figurative sense); sauté 1813; soufflé 1813; bonbon 1818; bain-marie 1822; consommé 1824; purée 1824; vol-au-vent 1828; mayonnaise 1841; gratin 1846; quenelle 1846; frappé 1848; charlotte 1855; sorbet 1865 (1585 in the sense of 'sherbet', which has ultimately the same etymology); chartreuse 1866; fondant 1877; glacé 1882; noisette 1891; mousse 1892.

Vehicles: cabriolet 1823; char-à-banc 1832; coupé 1834; now transferred to motor-vehicles.

Colours: ponceau (a bright red) 1835; cerise 1858; celeste 1881; sang-de-bouf 1886 (especially of a deep red found in Chinese porcelain).

Physical: svelte 1817; physique 1826; retroussé 1837; timbre 1849.

Medical: râle 1829; glycerine 1838; pipette 1839.

Social: parvenu 1802; surveillance 1802; séance 1803

(of spiritualism, 1845); luxe 1819 (later, train-de-luxe, etc.); soirée 1820; élite 1823; débutant 1824 (the feminine form in 1837); née 1835; pourboire 1836; convenances 1847; flancé 1853; demi-monde 1855; chic 1856; rente, rentier 1881 (with French pronunciation; cf. rent, borrowed in M.E.); déclassé 1887.

Qualities, behaviour, etc.: bonhomie 1803; exigeant 1803; distingué 1813; mot 1813; savoir faire 1815; blasé 1819; volte-face 1819; aplomb 1828; prestige 1829 (in modern sense; it had been borrowed earlier with the meaning of 'illusion, conjuring trick'); camaraderie 1840; claque 1863; flåneur 1872; élan 1880 ; flair 1881 ; réclame 1883 ; risqué 1883.

Political and diplomatic: rapprochement 1809; secretariat 1811; laissez-faire 1825; communism 1843; entente 1844 (in the phrase entente cordiale); débacle 1848 (earlier in this century in physical sense); impasse 1851; canard 1856; visé 1858; octroi 1861; émeute 1862; raison d'être 1867; enclave 1868; chauvinism 1870 (with reference to the First Empire); dossier 1880.

Miscellaneous: en masse 1802; litre 1810 (the word came into use in France in 1793); hectare 1810; mirage (used by Southey in figurative sense) 1812; in the physical sense, 1837 (Carlyle); battue (of driving game) 1816; genre 1816; revenant 1828; cabotage (coasting and coasting-trade) 1831; chute 1847; clairvoyance 1847; bête noire 1850; caporal (tobacco) 1850; savate 1862; coupon 1864; cloche (in gardening) 1882; wagonlit 1884.

In the twentieth century words are still being borrowed from France, though as in the nineteenth century the amount of naturalization, anglicizing, and popularization which they undergo varies very much. Even some quite recent loans are on everyone's lips, while others, usually of a technical character, have a restricted use. They are most frequent now in the vocabulary of art, literature, the theatre (e.g. revue, vers libre, montage), of dress (georgette, marocain, rayon, etc.), and of mechanics, especially motoring and aviation (fuselage; garage 1902; hangar; limousine; longeron; nacelle).

These do not complete the whole list of recent borrowings or occasional borrowings from French. The reader will be able to add many more, chiefly of an abstract character, both from this century, and from the latter part of the nineteenth. We may conclude with a few miscellaneous ones: camouflage (1917); pension (with French pronunciation); ballon d'essai; borné; causerie; champlevé; cire-perdue; crême-de-menthe; de trop; éclair; enfant terrible; entre nous; idée fixe; pied à terre.

And so we leave these French loans, with an acknowledgement of our great debt to a neighbour nation, even if some of the loans are rather unwillingly accepted. The question of repayment does not arise.

CHAPTER VI

LOW GERMAN AND HIGH GERMAN

A. Low German

Under the term Low German we include the dialects of Dutch (sometimes called Low Franconian), Flemish, and continental Saxon. The last-named includes the local dialects of North Germany, and the term Low German (or *Plattdeutsch*) is sometimes applied specifically to these. The Low German dialects are in many respects nearer in form to English than to High German; in Old and Middle English particularly the resemblance was very close, and it is indeed sometimes impossible to decide whether a word which is recorded perhaps first in the fourteenth century, and which may be a Low German loan, is actually foreign or is really a native word which has until then escaped being recorded in writing.

Already in pre-Conquest times there were connexions between England and the coasts of the Baltic. The racial tie between the peoples of these countries was not entirely broken when the Angles and Saxons left their continental homes. English missionaries travelled and taught in North Germany; and the literature of that region (the most important extant specimen of which is a poem on the Gospels, called the Hēliand, dating from the ninth century) certainly became known to Englishmen, for we possess part of a poem on the Fall of the Angels, translated from Old Saxon, of which fragments of the original still survive. This poem shows certain usages and certain words which reflect the Old Saxon original, though they did not become established in English and can hardly be considered as loan-words.

There is ample historical evidence ¹ of the close relations which existed between England and the Dutch and Flemish-speaking countries from the time of the Norman Conquest. The common

¹ See especially J. F. Bense, Anglo-Dutch Relations from the Earliest Times to the Death of William III, 1926. Also the same writer's Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary, O.U.P., 1926, etc.

commercial interests of these countries in the Middle Ages are well known. Dutch and Flemish immigrants, often skilled workmen in various handicrafts, were constantly settling in England, and their names are to be found in considerable numbers in records from the beginning of the twelfth century down to the present day. English merchants travelled, and sometimes settled, in the Low Countries. English sheep produced the finest wool; Flemish weavers of the thirteenth century and later were the best of their profession; not only was English wool sold in large quantities to Flanders, but Flemish workmen came to this country to teach as well as to ply their trade. Nor was this limited to those parts of England which were nearest to the Continent. Wool-growing and weaving centres are known to have existed in all parts of the country, many of the great monastic houses, in particular, maintaining large flocks of sheep. Hence the early Dutch and Flemish words may be found in any part of England; although far fewer in number, they are less restricted in distribution than the Scandinavian loans of an earlier period.

At the same time, trade was constant between the English ports and those of the Hanseatic League, and this provided at least one route by which Low German words could reach England from the Baltic coast. English sailors and English fishermen were constantly in touch with their Dutch neighbours; and in Tudor times particularly, English soldiers fought side by side with Dutch and Flemish in the wars in the Low Countries.

Then, too, religion and art both played their part as links across the North Sea, and the honoured position of Dutch painting in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries led to the introduction into Early Modern English of a number of Dutch words from the vocabulary of art.

It is rather curious that there seems to be no special introduction of Dutch words into English after the coming of a Dutch prince, William III, to this country. But the lists given below show no striking additions in the late seventeenth century which could be ascribed to the influence of the new sovereign or his court.

During the Early Modern and later periods English and Dutch have come into contact or conflict in their colonies. Not many words seem to have been introduced into English as a result of the long struggle between these two nations in the East Indies. The few exceptions are eastern words which entered English through Dutch (e.g. bamboo; see the chapter on Malay-Polynesian). A more important contribution from Dutch to English was made in South Africa. Parts of this area had been Dutch-speaking since the seventeenth century, and when the English at length established themselves at the Cape and elsewhere, they adopted a number of words from Dutch settlers. Some of these at least have become familiar in this country, though most, as will be seen, are used with purely local reference.

Low German words came into English in the greatest numbers in the sixteenth century, even if one considers only those which are still in use. But a few Dutch words can be traced back as early as the beginning of the thirteenth century.

Perhaps the earliest are poll 'POLL, head' and drivel 'servant' (M.Du. polle, and M.Flem. drevel), which occur in the legend of St. Margaret, c. 1200; drivel is found again in the sister-legend of St. Katherine, which has also another Low German word: doten 'to be foolish, rave; DOTE' (M.L.G. doten); this is to be found also in the earlier manuscript of Lazamon (c. 1200): me punched pe alde mon wole dotie nou nan I, 140; and as a noun in Sir Beves of Hamton: Azılt pe, treitour, pow olde dote! 217; the noun dotard, with a French suffix, appears first in the late fourteenth century. The earliest nautical word of Dutch origin which we have is luff, from O.Du. loef, perhaps through Old French. This occurs in Lazamon, in reference to some device for steering, though the exact meaning is uncertain; other senses developed later. Bounce, in the form bunsen (L.G. bumsen) is used in the Ancrene Riwle (c. 1225); Der ze schulen iseon bunsen ham mit tes deofles bettles [= clubs] 188; here the sense is 'to beat'; the intransitive use is not recorded till 1519. The same text has also snecchen 'SNATCH', which seems to be from M.Du. snacken, influenced by Eng. lacchen and cacchen. The North-East Midland writer Orm (c. 1200) seems to have only one Low German word, hucster 'HUCKSTER' in the phrase hucsteres bope. Another East Midland poem, the paraphrase of Genesis and Exodus (c. 1250) has the word takel 'TACKLE' (L.G. takel, a Scandinavian loan), in the sense of 'gear, implements'.

The word BOY, whose origin is quite uncertain, but which may be Low German, seems to correspond most closely in form and meaning to East Frisian boi 'young gentleman'; it is found first in the legend of Beket (MS. Cotton Harley 2277, c. 1300): zunge childerne and wylde boyes also; and a little later in the romance of Havelok, which has also ling (fish; Du. lenge). The word bouse 'BOOZE, drink deeply' also appears during the fourteenth century; and another Dutch word to do with drinking, or rather brewing, is gyle 'quantity of ale brewed at one time ' (besides other technical senses): this occurs first in a Yorkshire will of 1341, in the compound qule-fatt (gyle-vat), and later, in the form gyylde, in the Promptorium Parvulorum, an English-Latin dictionary of about 1440. The fourteenth century also adopted waynscot 'WAINSCOT', originally of a fine oak imported from Holland and used for panelling (Ely Sacr. Rolls, 1352); hobble (M.Du. hobbelen 'to rock from side to side'; out of heuene into helle hobleden faste Piers Plowman A I, 113; c. 1362); splint, first in the sense of a metal plate or peg (M.Du. splente; He was armyd in splentes of steel Richard Coer de Lyon 4979); kit (M.Du. kitte), first in the sense of 'tub', 1375; flue, a kind of fishing-net (M.Du. vlouve; j rete vocatum wade et j flowe Accounts of Abingdon Abbey, Camden Soc., 1388-9); kilderkin 'cask, half a barrel' (M.Du. kindekyn), 1390; skipper (M.Du. schipper, master of a ship) 1390; and finally Lollard, which is from M.Du. Lollaerd, formed from the verb lollen 'to hum'; the Dutch word was applied first, about 1300, to members of a fraternity who cared for the sick, and arranged funerals for the poor; they had achieved a reputation for exaggerated piety and humility.

The fifteenth-century Dutch loans are nearly all nautical, commercial, and industrial. The chief source is the *Promptorium Parvulorum* (mentioned above) from East Anglia. (Words dated 1440 are from this work, which also contains a number of other Low German words which do not occur here for the first time.)

Commercial: firkin 1423 in one of the Acts of Henry VI; probably from a M.Du. verdelkijn); mart 1437 (M.Du. marct, like market, from Lat. mercatus; in the first instances referring to the markets of Antwerp and Bruges); hop (plant) 1440

(O.Du. hoppe; England had a native humulus, but the variety used in brewing was perhaps introduced from Flanders, together with other things used in the brewing industry); pickle (M.Du. pekel) 1440; spool (M.Du. spoele) 1440; rack n. 1440 (L.Germ. rakk; the Prompt. Parv. has rakke as equivalent to praesepe 422; Wyclif (and other writers) associates it with 'manger': at racke and at manger, etc.); sled (M.Du. sledde) 1440; selvedge (E.Mod.Du. selfegghe, but assimilated to self + edge; first in the Boke of Curtasye 1460, with reference to the selvedge of the 'dowbull napere' on the table); guilder, apparently from the Flemish gulden, 1481 (Caxton); corf, a kind of basket of fish, etc., 1483 (Caxton); Mechlin (lace) 1483; excise (M.Du. excijs, from Lat.) 1494.

Nautical: marline (Du. marlijn) 1417: buoy (M.Du. boje,

Nautical: marline (Du. marlijn) 1417: buoy (M.Du. boje, boei) 1466; deck (Du. dec 'roof, covering'; the nautical sense seems to be a development in English of the sense 'roof' etc. (also found in English); this meaning does not appear in Dutch till the seventeenth century) 1466; orlop (M.L.G. overlöp) 1467; hoist, variant of hoise (Du. hijschen) 1490 (Caxton); hoy (An hoye of Dorderyght, Paston Letters 1495; M.Du. hoy); hose (M.Du. hoos, the same word as Eng. hose 'stocking'; makyng of hoses for the pompes of the send ship Naval Accounts, Henry VII, 1495).

Military: bulwark 1430 (Lydgate); M.Du. has bolwerk, probably from M.H.G. bolewerc; it is used first of a rampart, earthwork, etc. (cf. Fr. boulevard, also from Dutch); the nautical sense is not found till 1804.

Miscellaneous: pip (M.Du. pip; Other while an hen wul ha the pippe, / A whit pilet that wul the tonge enrounde) c. 1420 (Palladius on Hosebondrie); brake, in three senses all perhaps from Du. or L.G.: 'thicket' (M.L.G. brake) 1440; 'instrument for beating flax' 1440, but the verb a little earlier, 1398; for vehicle (M.Du. braeke) 1430; boor 'peasant' (Du. boer, whence the later Boer; M.L.G. būr; Of tilthe of lande treteth the boueer Lydgate) 1430; loiter (probably M.Du. leuteren; 1440, unless the emendation of loltrande to loitrande (Pres. Part.) in the alliterative poem of Patience 458 be accepted); placard 1481, but through French plaque (cf. Mod. plaque), which formed the noun from the M.Du. verb placken 'to stick'; it was used of a

formal document with a seal stuck on to it; the suffix -ard is French; bruin 1481 (Caxton's translation of the popular epic Reynard the Fox); snap n. (Du. snap) 1495; the verb (Du. snappen) appears in 1530; groove (M.Du. groeve 'trench, groove'; Wars of Alexander, fifteenth century, in the sense of 'cave'; later it means 'channel, hollow; mine, pit'); luck (M.Du. luc; Wher-for lucke and good hanselle my hert y sende you Political, Religious, and Love Poems of the XV Century).

The sixteenth century introduced a number of military words from the Low Countries, and its close also brought us the first of the Dutch words relating to art, most of which are recorded first in the following century. Nautical words are still to the fore.

Commercial and industrial: gulden (early sixteenth century); stiver (Du. stuiver) 1502; hawker (from M.L.G. hoker, or perhaps from hac 'retail dealer') 1510; scone (probably shortened from L.G. schonbrod) 1513; isinglass (O.Du. huizenblas 'sturgeon's bladder', assimilated to glass) 1528; cambric (from the Flemish place-name Kamerijk = Cambrai) 1530; muff (Du. mof) 1579 (Ben Jonson); flue, earlier floow 'woolly fluff' (M.Du. vloe, or W.Flem. vluwe) 1589; doit (M.Du. duit) 1594; anker, a liquid measure, 1597; rix-dollar (Du. rijksdaler) 1598.

Nautical: dock (M.Du. docke) 1513; splice (M.Du. splissen; recorded in England first of bell-ropes: Paid for Splisyng of v bell ropis vd Records of St. Mary at Hill) 1524; rove, originally 'to practise piracy' (Du. rooven) 1536; train-(oil) 1553 (Chancelour, in Hakluyt's Voyages, with reference to whaling); yacht (Du. jacht) 1557; freebooter (M.Du. vribueter 'pirate') 1570; shallop 1578 (Du. sloep, through Fr. chaloupe; cf. sloop in the seventeenth century); monsoon 1684 (originally Arabic; came into Dutch through Portuguese); reef 'ridge of rock', earlier riff (Du. ref, rif) 1584; filibuster (like freebooter, from Du. vribueter; the l is perhaps due to Du. vlieboot, Eng. flyboat 1577) 1587; swabber (Du. zwabber) 1592, of part of crew.

Military: sutler (Du. zootelaer) 1500; wag(g)on 1523 (Berners, Froissart; Du. wagen); uproar 'insurrection' (Du. oproer) 1526; snaffle (Du. snavel) 1533; snaphance, of the cock of a gun (Du. snaphaan), 1538 in a transferred sense, of an armed robber; forlorn hope, originally a picked detachment leading an attack (Du. verloren hoop 'lost troop'), 1539; the abstract sense is

found already in 1572; hackbut (through Fr. haquebut, from Du. haakbus) 1541; linstock 1560 (Du. lontstok 'match stick'; it has been influenced in English by lint, i.e. flax used as tinder); beleaguer (Du. belegeren) 1589; (land)loper (Du. looper 'runner'), before 1583.

People: younker 'young man' (Du. jonker) 1505; minikin 'darling' (M.Du. minnekijn) 1541; minx (E.Mod.Du. mensch, of woman in depreciatory sense in neuter) 1542; palsgrave 'Count Palatine' 1548; margrave (M.Du. marcgrave; The marcgrave as thei call him of Bruges, Robinson's translation of More's Utopia) 1551; burgher 1568; quacksalver (Du. kwakzalver), Gosson's School of Abuse 1579; burgomaster (Du. burgemeester, with assimilation of the second element to master) 1592; wiseacre (M.Du. wijs-segger, from M.H.G. weis-sager) 1595.

Art: manikin 1570 (E.Mod.Du. manneken; Thus, of a Manneken, (as the Dutch painters terme it) . . . may a Grant be made; cf. Fr. mannequin, also from Dutch; this appears in English in 1911); (land) scape (M.Du. lantscap) 1598.

Miscellaneous: (i) Verbs: mum 'to act in dumb-show' (Mod.Du. mommen 'to mask, masquerade') 1530, but the noun mumming, c. 1465; foist (M.Du. vuysten 'to take in the fist'; perhaps introduced first as a gambling term) 1545; snip (Du. snippen 'to cut in small pieces') 1558; spatter (apparently a frequentative from Du. spatten 'to burst, spout') 1582 (Stanyhurst's Æneis); ravel (M.Du. ravelen) 1582; domineer (Du. domineeren, which is from French) 1588; split (M.Du. splitten) 1590; rant (M.Du. ranten) 1598. (ii) Other words: litnus (M.Du. leecmoes) 1502, spelt lyztmose; fitch 'polecat' (M.Du. vitsche) 1502; spit n., of earth in digging, 1507-8; frolic adj. (M.Du. vrolyc; And make frowlyke chere, Bale's Thre Lawes) 1538; the verb in 1583; pad 'path, track', 1554, originally a slang term (Du. pad); siskin 1562 (M.Du. sijsken, from L.G. zieske, from Slav. czyżik); kermess (Du. kermis, from M.Du. kerk-misse) 1577.

The seventeenth century brought in rather fewer words than the sixteenth; they belong for the most part to the sea, to warfare, and to art.

Commercial and industrial: coper (M.Du. coper 'merchant') 1609; brandy, earlier brandewine (Du. brandewijn 'vinum

ardens') 1622; stoker 1660 (of brewer's furnace); stum, unfermented grape-juice, 1662 (Du. stom); duffel (from name of town in Brabant) 1677; smuggle (L.G. smuggeln) 1687.

Nautical: smack (M.Du. smacke) 1611; keelhaul (E.Mod.Du. kielhalen) 1626; garboard (Du. gaarboord) 1626; sloop (Du. sloep) 1629; hooker (E.Mod.Du. hoeck-boot) 1641; cruise (Du. kruisen; this loan belongs to the time of the first Anglo-Dutch war) 1651; walrus (Du., from Swed. vallross) 1655; jib 1661 (this seems to be a variant of gybe 1693; Du. gijben); patroon 'master of a ship', etc. (Du. patroon) 1662; yawl (Du. jol) 1670.

Military: knapsack (Du. knapsack) 1603; onslaught (Du. aanslag; influenced by slaughter) 1625; furlough (Du. verlof) 1625; tattoo (Du. taptoe) 1644; blunderbuss (an altered form of Du. dunderbus) 1654.

Art: easel (Du. ezel) 1654; maulstick (Du. maalstok, re-formed with Eng. second element) 1658; sketch (Du. schets, a loan from Ital. schizzo; the Latin word from which this comes is used in a literary sense, and is itself a loan-word from Greek) 1668; stipple (Du. stippelen) 1669; lay-(man) 'lay-figure' (Du. leeman) 1688; lay-figure in 1795.

Agriculture, etc.: decoy, also coy, 1618 (Du. kooi 'cage'; the source of the de- is doubtful; it may be the Dutch definite article); morass (Du. moeras, from French; in the earlier part of the seventeenth century many Dutchmen were employed on the drainage of the fens) 1655.

People: outlander 1605 (Verstegan; English in form, but suggested by Du. uitlander); Dopper 'Baptist' (E.Mod.Du. dooper; later from S. African Dutch = member of the Dutch Reformed Church of S. Africa) 1620.

Miscellaneous: (i) Verbs: hanker (Flem. hankeren) 1601; slur (M.Du. sleuren 'to draggle') 1609; drill vb. 'to bore' (E.Mod.Du. drillen) 1611; other senses from this or directly from Dutch; snort (L.G. snorten) 1619; shamble (M.Du. schampelen) 1681; snuff (M.Du. snuffen 'to clear the nose') 1683; the noun is from the verb; hustle (Du. hutselen) 1684 (Otway). (ii) Other words: spancel (M.Du. spansel) 1610; skate (Du. schaatz, from Fr. eschace 'stilt', from L.G. shake 'leg'; so the word is, as it were, doubly from Low German)

1656; slim 1657; spelter (L.G. spialter) 1661 (Boyle); abele (Du., from Fr.; a finer sort of white Poplar, which the Dutch call abele 1681); mallemuck, the fulmar (Du. mallemok) 1694.

The eighteenth century is specially remarkable for the beginning of the introduction of words from South African Dutch; the earliest is from 1731. These are due partly to political contacts between the two races in the Cape of Good Hope, but mostly to the writings of travellers.

Commercial: geneva (Du. jenever, from O.Fr. genevre from Lat. juniperus; the word was wrongly associated in English with the Place-Name Geneva) 1706; the shortened form gin appears in 1714; colza (Du. koolzaad = coleseed, through French colsat, colza) 1712; lambrequin (Du. lamperkin, again through French) 1725.

Nautical: schooner (this is Du. schooner, apparently borrowed first from Eng. scoon 'to skim over the water'; reborrowed by English from Dutch in America) 1716; pea-jacket (probably from Frisian pijekkat; again found first in America) 1725 New Jersey Archives; drogher, a vessel used in the coasting-trade of the West Indies, 1756; caboose (M.Du. kabuse) 1769; vang 1769; scow (Du. schouw) 1775.

Military: roster (Du. rooster) 1727.

Miscellaneous: spillikin (M.Du. diminutive of spille 'pin, peg') 1734; wentletrap (Du. wenteltrap; earlier 'spiral stair') 1758; mangle n. (Du. mangel; ultimately from Greek magganon) 1774; dune (M.Du. duun, but through French; ultimately the same word as down) 1790; moss-bunker 'menhaden' (Du. marsbunker) 1792; trass, a volcanic earth used as cement, (Du. tras, from Ital. terrazza) 1796.

South African: kloof 1731 (Medley's translation of Kolben's Cape of Good Hope: kloof, as the Dutch call it; so not really accepted as a loan-word); steenbok, springbok (Masson, journey to the Cape) 1775; duiker, gemsbok (Forster, Voyage Round the World) 1777; ratel 1777; klipspringer 1785; eland, hartebeest, grysbok (Sparrman, Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope) 1786; krantz, earlier krants 1798.

In the nineteenth century the greater number of Dutch loans are from South Africa, several appearing first in newspaper reports. A few words come first into American English.

Nautical: taffrail (Du. tafereel) 1814; flench, flense, a whaling term, 1814 (the whaling industry was mainly in the hands of the Dutch until the late eighteenth century, after which the English interest in it increased largely); specktioneer, the chief harpooner in a whaler, (Du. spek-snijer, from spek 'blubber' + snijden 'to cut') 1820.

Miscellaneous: sprue, a tropical disease (Du. spruw) 1825; plaque (French from Flemish) 1848; schipperke 1887.

Words borrowed by American English: spook 1801 (in an American journal); waffle (Du. wafel) 1808; boss (Du. baas) 1822; dope 1880.

South African: meerkat 1801 (Barrow, Travels in South Africa); aardvark, aardwolf 1833; wildebeest 1838. Veldt 1801; sjambok 1804 (Dutch from Malay—a reflection of the Dutch power in the East Indies—originally Persian: chabūq 'whip'); biltong 1815; stoep, outspan (Burchell's Travels) 1822; commando, military party, 1834; knobkerrie (the second element is Hottentot), trek 1849 (Napier, Excursions in S. Africa); predikant (Darly News) 1849; laager 1850; inspan 1850; spoor (Cumming, A Hunter's Life in S. Africa) 1850; mealie 1853 (Du. from Portuguese); commandeer (The Times, with reference to the Boers) 1881; kopje (Contemporary Review) 1881; banket, a gold-mining term, 1886; taal 1898.

B. HIGH GERMAN

There was less direct influence of High German on English in the earlier stages of the language than we have found in the case of French, Dutch, or Scandinavian. It has already been indicated that French possessed a number of words which came originally from Germanic or High German, and some at least of these came into English during the Middle English period; but until the sixteenth century the only word which appears to have reached this country directly from Southern Germany is the Old English word for the Greeks: Crēacas, which comes, it has been maintained, from O.H.G. Kriaha (from Lat. Graec-), in which the initial consonant represents the regular change of g to k in the South German dialects; this explanation of the Old English form is, however, doubtful.

The most distinctive contribution of German to English has been in the domain of mineralogy, and though many of these words have remained only in technical use, some are in universal use, e.g. zinc, nickel. The Germans were noted for their skill in mining and metal-work as early as the fifteenth century, and in the late sixteenth century German workmen (certayn Almaynes) were brought into England for working the copper and other ores in Cumberland and elsewhere. Elizabeth incorporated two companies for working the English mines, and many Germans were employed by them.¹

Beginning in the sixteenth century, the first German loanwords which can be certainly traced are the following: landgrave 1516; junker, a young German noble (cf. Dutch jonker, adopted in English as younker), 1554; kreutzer 1547; lobby 1553; originally a monastic term, coming into English from Mediaeval Latin laubia, lobia (from O.H.G. *laubja) rather than directly from German; from the same Latin form the French loge is derived, borrowed in Middle English as lodge; kinchin 'child', a cant term, from Germ. kindchen, 1561; carouse n. and vb., through French from Germ. (trinken) gar aus 'drink to the last drop', 1567.

Seventeenth century loans are only slightly more numerous: Commercial: groschen 1617; drill (fabric, Germ. drillich) is abbreviated from the earlier drilling, which is found in 1640; silesia, a fine linen or cotton fabric (made originally in Silesia, which is the Latinized form of Schlesien) 1674. Military: lansquenet, a mercenary soldier, 1607 (Germ. landsknecht, through French); plunder (Germ. plündern) 1632; shabrach, a saddle-cloth (originally a Turkish word) 1667; sabre (through French from Germ. sabel, but Slavonic in origin) 1680. Mineralogical: zinc 1651; guhr (from a Germ. dialect) 1686. Products of, and things specially associated with, Germany: hamster, a kind of rodent, 1607; sauerkraut 1617; morgen, a measure of land, 1674; krummhorn, a musical instrument, 1694; a French version of this word appears also in the same year (cromorne); and finally the German word for a waternymph, undine, fairly well known, though hardly naturalized

¹ See the Charter of the Mines Royal, 1568, and letters concerning English and Welsh mines and German miners, in R. H. Tawney and E. Power, *Tudor Economic Documents*, vol. i, London, 1924.

(the word in German was formed from the Mod. Lat. Undina, coined by Paracelsus).

Mineralogical and geological terms become more numerous in the eighteenth century, forming indeed more than half of this century's contribution. We find in addition such familiar words as *iceberg* and *waltz*.

Military: hetman 1710 (this is actually a Polish form of the German hauptmann, and was used for a captain or military commander in Poland); uhlan 1753 (this came to us from German, but that language borrowed it from Polish, in which it was a loan-word from Turkish ughlān 'son, youth, servant'); jaeger 'rifleman' (Germ. jäger, originally 'hunter') 1776.

Mineralogical, etc.: cobalt 1728 (Germ. kobalt, probably the same word as kobold); seltzer (Germ. Selterser, from Selters, a village in Prussia) 1741; shale, a laminated rock (Germ. schale 'scale') 1747; quartz 1756; spath(ic) 1763; fel(d)spar (Germ. feldspar) 1757 (Costa, Natural History of Fossils); sinter 1757; gneiss, wolfram (Henckel's Pyritology) 1757; hornblende 1770; nickel 1775; schorl 1779; meerschaum 1784; nephrite 1794; speiss 1796; wacke 1796.

Products of Germany: maw(seed), seed of the opium poppy, 1730 (Germ. dial. mahsaat, cf. Germ. mohn 'poppy'); landau 1743 (Place-Name); pumpernickel 1756; zinke, a musical instrument, 1776; mangel-wurzel (Germ. mangold-wurzel 'beet + root') 1779; waltz 1781 (the French form of this, valse, appears in English in 1796).

Miscellaneous: zigzag (through French from Germ. zickzack) 1712; veneer n. 1702, vb. 1728 (a curious example of borrowing and re-borrowing; Germ. furnieren, which became Eng. veneer, is from French fourner, from an O.H.G. form); iceberg 1774 (Germ. eisberg).

Nineteenth century: Military: fugleman (Germ. flügelmann) 1804; landsturm 1814; landwehr 1815; and here might be included the French kepi 1861, which is from German-Swiss kāppi.

Mineralogy: gangue (through French, from Germ. gang) 1809; loess 1835; spiegeleisen 1868; kainite 1868; kieselguhr 1875.

Birds and animals: lammergeier 1817; poodle 1825 (Germ.

182 HISTORY OF FOREIGN WORDS IN ENGLISH pudel(hund), from L.G. pudeln 'to splash'); spitz 1845; dachshund 1881.

Food and drink: vermouth (French vermout, from Germ. wermuth) 1806; schnapps 1818; lager 1853; kirsch 1869; kümmel 1882; marzipan 1891 (the origin of this German word is unknown; corresponding forms occur in many European languages, including English, which has marchpane, found first in the fifteenth century, now quite superseded by the German form).

Music: kapellmeister 1838; zither 1850; leitmotiv 1876 (with reference to the operas of Wagner); humoresque (Germ. humoreske) 1889.

Words relating to Switzerland: alpenstock 1829; yodel (Germ. jodeln) 1830; edelweiss 1862.

Educational: semester (Germ. from Latin) 1827; kindergarten 1852, type of school devised by Friedrich Fröbel (1782–1852); seminar 1889.

Scientific: paraffin (Germ. name invented by Reichenbach in 1830) 1835; protein (Germ. from Greek) 1869; ohm 1870 (from the name of a German physicist); and we may include here veronal 1903.

Miscellaneous: kohl-rabi (Germ. from Ital. cavoli rape 'colerape') 1807; deckle (Germ. deckel) 1810; barouche (Germ. dial. barutsche, from Ital. barrocio) 1813; buhl (Germ. adaptation of the French name Boule) 1823; kobold 1830; nix, a water-sprite, 1833; poltergeist 1838; philippine 1848 (through French from Germ. vielliebchen, approximated to the personal name Philippe); kursaal 1849; schottische (Germ. schottische tanz 'Scottish dance') 1854; rinderpest, a disease of cattle, 1865; coburg a fabric, 1882; hinterland 1890; zeitgeist 1893; rucksack 1895.

CHAPTER VII

THE ITALIAN ELEMENT

Next 1 to Latin, French, and Scandinavian, the language to which English owes the greatest number of foreign words is Italian. Its influence, however, extends over a shorter period, while it must be remembered that a good many Italian loans have come to us, not directly, but through French, and that a good many also are not naturalized here, but retain in some measure an Italian form or application, or both (e.g. gondola, doge, camorra, condottiere), even though some have settled down entirely as English words (e.g. race 'stock', traffic, umbrella, artichoke, and even volcano and macaroni). It is the vocabularies of art, music, and literature that have acquired most from Italian during the last three centuries, but the earliest Italian loans were of a commercial or military character.

Of loans before the sixteenth century there are very few, and all came through French. Even diplomatic relations in the Middle Ages, and a slowly increasing acquaintance with contemporary Italian literature during the fourteenth century (culminating in Chaucer's translations from the Italian) seem to have brought to this country few or no Italian terms to add to the common stock. But when the Tudor period begins there is an inrush of new terms from Italy, and Italian borrowing reaches its peak in the second half of the sixteenth century. During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries (and even in the fourteenth) there was a direct connexion between England and Italy through the Flanders galleys, which carried the Flemish trade; these sailed to Venice regularly every year, and part of the fleet touched as regularly at three English ports on their return from Italy.

It has just been said that trade terms owe much to Italy, and it is in these words of Tudor times that to us nowadays commerce seems to wear its aspect of highest romance. Perhaps there is

¹ See especially Mario Praz, The Italian Element in English, in Essays and Studies by Members of the English Association, vol. xv, 1929.

some magic in the Italian words themselves, or perhaps it is partly literary associations that stir the mind when we read of caravel, of frigate, of galleass, or of the ocean where—

argosies with portly sail
Like signiors and rich burghers on the flood
Or, as it were, the pageants of the sea,
Do overpeer the petty traffickers,
That curtsy to them, do them reverence,
As they fly by them with their woven wings.

But even as the commerce of England was preparing to carry the words of Italy farther and farther afield, the strength of Italian trade was beginning to decline. From the early sixteenth century Spain and Portugal led the way across the oceans, while Italy's scope remained within the confines of the Mediterranean coasts. However, while Italian commercial terms in English increase little in number after the end of the sixteenth century, words relating to the arts, which have by then begun to make their appearance, accumulate fast in succeeding periods. Names of musical instruments and types of music (beginning with the madrigal), terms of art and of literature (beginning with the sonnet on the one hand, and with the buffoon of Italian comedy on the other), are as common as words of trade by the end of the century.

But we must turn back to the Middle English period to consider those words which can be traced back to Italian, even though they came to us indirectly. To the fourteenth century belong florin (Ital. fiorino, through French, and influenced by Latin; it owes its name to the fact that when first minted at Florence it bore the city's badge, a lily), earliest in 1303, and thereafter several times in that century; the military alarm (from French, from Ital. allarme = all' arme 'to arms!') from 1325; million (Chaucer, milioum; Ital. millione) 1362; commercial again in ducat 1384 (Ital. ducato). The word Lombard reminds us of the connexion in this country between Italians and banking; it acquired the general sense of 'financial agent, banker' in Old French; the same development of sense took place in English, and already in the fourteenth century Langland uses Lumbardes without geographical implication.

In the fifteenth century brigand (Chaucer, brigaunt 1400) brings to our minds a danger to commerce, while mizzen (Fr., from Ital. mezzana) 1465, and bark (Fr. barque, Ital. barca) 1475, carry trade to sea. One article of trade is to be found in the fishname tunny 1480 which is (through French) from Ital. tonno (from Latin, but before that Greek, and probably ultimately from a pre-Hellenic Mediterranean language).

During the sixteenth century words came to us directly from Italy, and not only by way of France. This is partly due to the growing fashion of travel in Italy, whence many travellers returned imbued with Italian manners and customs, as well as with a knowledge of the language, and partly to a far closer acquaintance with Italian literature than there had been before. Translations from Italian became numerous, and the popularity of Italian plots, characters, and scenes may be seen by a glance at Shakespeare alone, to say nothing of Jonson, Massinger, Beaumont, and Fletcher, and others of his successors. Poets such as Wyatt and Surrey brought us Italian forms of verse, and Spenser and lesser writers after him owe much to Ariosto in characters, in episodes, in turns of phrase, if not in temper.1 Ariosto has indeed given us the word rodomontade (see below), and it has been suggested that the popularity of the word paladin at one time is due to his influence.

Let us now consider the individual loans which belong to this century, and make an attempt at classifying them. First, words indicating rank and office and people in general: from Ital. razza) 1500 is now used universally; nuncio 1528 is chiefly used now, as in the sixteenth century, of a Papal ambassador, but it will be remembered that Shakespeare could use it as a general term for 'messenger'2; poltroon 1529 is interesting in form, since it is the first of a number of loans in which -oon represents an Anglicizing of French -on from Ital. -one (cf. balloon; bassoon; maroon; pantaloon, etc.); artisan (Fr. from Ital. artigiano, cf. partisan for the form) 1538 is now thoroughly English: podesta 1548 was known first, as it was used in Italy, for the governor, under the Empire, of a city of

See especially B. E. C. Davis, Edmund Spenser, pp. 84 ff.
 She will attend it better in thy youth / Than in a nuncio of more grave

aspect '-Twelfth Night, I, iv.

Lombardy, but its use was extended later to the chief magistrate of other cities, though it is still confined to Italy, as is also doge 1549 (Venetian); partisan 'supporter' appears in 1555, and populace (Fr., from Ital. popolaccio), another word of general application, in 1572; magnifico 1573 and signor 1577 were applied to Italian noblemen and gentlemen. Other aspects of Italian life are reflected in mountebank 1577 (Ital. montambanco) and bravo 'villain' 1597, the former now having the wider use. Madonna is used as a form of address to a lady, in Shakespeare and elsewhere (first in 1584); as a term of art, signifying a picture of the Madonna, it is found first in 1644. Pedant is also used by Shakespeare in the sense of 'schoolmaster, tutor'.

Social activities, customs, clothes, etc.: gambol 1503; scope 1534, now a word of very wide application, came into English with the sense of 'space for free exercise of movement', though its original meaning had been 'target, mark, thing aimed at'; peruke (Fr. from Ital. perruca) 1547; disgrace (Fr. disgracier, Ital. disgraziare) 1549; ballot, with reference to voting, 1549; gondola 1549; carnival 1549; lazaretto 1549; (these last four from Thomas's History of Italie); cassock 1550 was not always a term of clerical dress, but was used earlier for a long, loose gown which might be either civil or military; as applied to the dress of an Anglican clergyman it is used first in 1663; mustachio has been referred to already under its French form moustache (Ital. mostaccio); the (more or less) Italian form is still occasionally used; it appears in 1551; strappado 1560 (Ital. strappata) has had its suffix re-formed, perhaps on the analogy of Spanish words in -ado; most of the Italian words in -ata have come to us with the French form of the suffix: -ade (e.g. arcade); lottery 1567 (this is ultimately a Gmc. word); pall-mall 1568 (Fr. pallemaille, from Ital. pallamaglio); this game is now obsolete, but its name, used also for the type of alley in which it was played, has survived in the London streetname Pall-Mall, which dates from 1656; galligaskins, still occasionally used for a kind of breeches, or gaiters, is an irregular form from Fr. garguesque from Ital. grechesca, a feminine adjectival form meaning 'in the Greek fashion, à la grecque'; it is found first in 1577; seraglio (Ital. serr-) 1581, referring originally to the palace of the Sultan at Constantinople; garb

1591 has the general sense of 'fashion, style, manner'; Ital. garbo meant rather 'grace, elegance'; concert 1598 is found first as a verb, 'to bring to accord, bring into agreement'; the noun does not appear till 1656, in a musical sense in 1689; biretta 1598, and the now obsolete card-playing term taroc, tarot (Ital. tarocca) 1598, close this century.

Italian products, plants, etc., give us very few words at this period: rocket (the herb), Fr. roquette, from Ital. ruchetta, 1530; tarantula (Ital. -ola) 1561; belladonna 1597; macaroni (Ital. maccaroni, later maccheroni) 1599.

Terms relating to military matters, or to horsemanship, for which the Italian was celebrated, are fairly numerous, and many have survived, often with changed or generalized meanings. Plastron 1506, through French, representing Ital. piastrone; post 1506 (Fr. from Ital. posta) was applied first to the relays of mail-carriers who bore royal despatches; pistol 1550 is shortened from pistolet, a French derivative of Ital. pistol-ese, from the Place-Name Pistoia (Tuscany); panache 1553 (Fr., from Ital. pennacchio); partisan, a kind of pike, 1566 (Ital. partesana); this seems to have become obsolete at the end of the seventeenth century, but was revived by Scott; cartel 1560 (Ital. cartello) was a written challenge; cavalier 1560 now has several specialized meanings, but was in origin simply a horse-soldier; manage 1561 has now acquired a very wide application, but was once a term of horsemanship, Ital. maneggiare, to control a horse, put it through its paces, etc.; cf. the French form manège n., which retains this sense; squadron (Ital. squadrone) 1562; postillion (Fr., from Ital. postiglione) 1565; casemate 1575, a term in fortification, probably represents Ital. casa, but the origin of the second element of the word is unknown; curvet (Ital. corvetta) 1575 n. again refers to horses; bandolier 1577 (Ital., from a Gmc. stem); escort (Fr., from Ital. scorta) in a military sense in 1579; gabion (Ital. gabione) 1579; citadel (Ital. cittadella, through French) 1586; musket (Fr. from Ital. moschetto) 1587; duel(lo) has the two forms already in the sixteenth century, duello in 1588, duel 1591; it may be mentioned that most of the technical fencing-terms now used are from, or through, French, but some appear to be Spanish, and a few, such as riposte, are in origin Italian; battalion (Fr., from Ital. battaglione 1589);

ravelin (Fr. from Ital. ravellino) 1589; parapet (Ital. -etto) 1590: cavalcade (Fr., from Ital. -ata) 1591; salvo, which now has changed its ending from the earlier -a 1591 (Ital. salva); paladin (Ital. paladino) 1592; bandit 1593 (Ital. bandito); cavesson, a horse's nose-band, 1598 (Fr. caveçon, Ital. cavezzone); and finally post in the sense of 'military station' 1598, later generalized.

Next we come to trade, beginning with the general term traffic (Ital. traffico 1506); contraband 1509; milliner 1529 was originally an inhabitant of Milan, but was later restricted to a maker of the fancy goods from Milan, ribbons, hats, etc.; bankrupt has been assimilated to the Lat. past participle ruptus, from which it ultimately comes, but is through French from Ital. banca rotta (1553); carat 1552 is Ital. carato, but beyond that is Arab. girat: soldo, a coin, 1599. Six names of vessels now appear: caravel 1527; galleass (Ital. galeazza) 1544; skiff (Fr. esquif, Ital. schifo from O.H.G. scif, and thus cognate with ship) 1575; argosy 1577 (Ital. ragusea '(ship) of Ragusa'); frigate 1585 (Ital. fregata); settee, a type of vessel used in the Mediterranean, 1587 (from French, from Ital. saettia, from Latin sagitta 'arrow'). Then there are a number of words indicating objects of trade: parmesan (Ital. parmegiano '(cheese) of Parma') 1519; citron 1530; porcelain (Fr., from Ital. porcellano) 1530; artichoke 1531 (this has wandered far, for the North Italian articiocco is borrowed from Old Spanish, which took it from Arabic); majolica 1555 (from the old Italian form of Majorca); smalt, a kind of blue glass, 1558 (Ital., but in origin Gmc. and related to smelt) 1558; ferret, a kind of silk ribbon, 1576 (Ital. fioretti); baldachin, a rich brocaded material, usually of silk and gold thread, 1598 (Ital. from Baldacco = Baghdad, from which the stuff was imported).

Architectural: cupola 1549; duomo 1549; this and piazza are the only words in this group which did not become naturalized in English; cornice 1563; frieze (Fr. frise, Ital. fregio) 1563; modillion 1563; pedestal (Fr. piédestal, Ital. piedestallo; the word has been influenced by Lat. ped-em) 15631; pilaster 1575; piazza 1583 (Ital. piazza; Lat. platea, whence also Fr. place and Span. plaza, both borrowed by English; cf. also O.E.

¹ All these from Shute's Architecture, 1563.

plætse, a rare word, borrowed directly from Latin); belvedere 1596; stucco 1598 n.

Words connected with the arts: (i) Music: madrigal 1588; sordine 1591; pandora 1597; viol da gamba 1597 (in the title of Dowland's First Booke of Songes or Ayres); fugue, at first spelt fuge 1597 (Ital. fuga; the spelling with -ue is French). (ii) Painting and sculpture, etc.: impaste 1548; cameo 1561; model 1575 (Ital. modello); pastel, a dye obtained from woad, 1578; later used for a paste made into cravons: miniature 1586; motto 1589, a word or phrase inscribed on or beneath an emblematic design, on a shield, etc.; gesso 1596; fresco 1598; mezzo-rilievo 1598. (iii) Literature: buffoon 1549 (Ital. buffone; like the pantaloon and the zany, a character from Italian comedy); sonnet 1557 (Ital. soneto); villanelle 1586 (Fr. from Ital. villanella); stanza 1588; zany (Ital. zanni, Venetian form of Gianni = Giovanni) 1588 (this, like stanza, first in Love's Labour's Lost); canto 1590; pantaloon 1590; inamorato 1592 (the feminine inamorata is not recorded in English till 1651); canzone 1590, canzonet 1593; tercet (Fr., from Ital. terzetta) 1598.

In the seventeenth century we have an increase in the number of words indicating Italian social customs and products, rather fewer in the military group, and considerable numbers of words relating to art, music, and literature. In the preceding century most of the loans came in during the last fifty years, but here they seem to be fairly evenly distributed throughout the period.

Italian life and society: capriceio 'caprice' 1601; intrigue vb. 1612 (Ital. intrigare); caprice (the Fr. form of capriccio) 1667. Charlatan (Fr., from Ital. crarlatano) 1618; gala 1625, first in the sense of 'gala dress'; monsignor 1635; incognito 1638; regatta (Venetian) 1652; cortège 1679 (Fr., from Ital. corteggio); gazette (Fr., from Ital. gazzetta, a small Venetian coin, and also a news-sheet, costing this amount) 1605, both with reference to the Italian coin, and also for an English news-sheet; umbrella (Ital. om-) 1609; its restriction to a protection against rain has been gradual; to begin with it was used either for rain or for sun; lagoon (Ital. laguna) 1612; it is used in English first with reference to the lagoons of Venice; parasol 1616 (Ital. parasole); sirocco 1617 (Ital. from Arab.); vetturino 1617 (hardly used except in reference to Italy); valise (Fr.,

from Ital. valigia) 1633; balloon (Fr. ballon, from Ital. ballone) 1634; cascade (Fr., from Ital. cascada) 1641; gambit, in chess, 1656; espalier (Fr., from Ital. spalliere) 1662; sbirro 1668.

Words for food were never borrowed in large numbers from Italian: macaroon (Ital. maccarone) 1611; vermicelli 1669.

Geological: volcano 1613; granite 1646.

Trade: piastre 1611 (Ital. piastra, but originally a Spanish coin, used by Italian traders in the Mediterranean); lira 1617; muslin (Fr. mousseline, later borrowed in a form approximating to the French, from Ital. mussolina, from the Place-Name Mussolo = Mosul, in Mesopotamia) 1609; felucca (Ital. from Arabic) 1628; mercantile 1642; risk (Fr. risque, Ital. risco) 1661 n.; the verb in 1687; scudo 1644; padrone 1660; agio 1682; organzine, a kind of silk thread, 1699.

Military, mostly through French: attack (Ital. attacare) 1600 vb.; rocket (Ital. roccheta) 1611; stiletto 1611; generalissimo 1621; musketoon 1638 (Ital. moschettone) 1638; fuse (Ital. fuso) 1644; barrack 1686 (Ital. baracca 'tent' or other shelter); vedette 1690; caserne 1696.

Political or diplomatic: internuncio 1641; manifesto 1644; bulletin (Ital. bulletino, an official health-certificate) 1651.

Italian birds and plants: beccafico 1621; morello 1648; francolin 1653; ortolan 1656; broccoli 1699.

Architectural: Most of these are now common in English; English architecture was much affected by Italian at this period, especially through the influence of Inigo Jones, and other architects who had travelled in Italy: portico 1605; entablature 1611 (through Fr., from Ital. intavolatura); villa 1611, but partly direct from Latin villa, the source of the Italian word; in either case the sense has now changed and is changing; the original sense was 'country residence'; in Italian the stress is on the gardens and grounds rather than on the house; grotto 1617; balcony (Ital. balcone) 1618; corridor 1620; pergola 1654; catacomb 1662 (this word, from Latin, is already to be found in O.E., catacumbas, but the modern word is certainly a new loan from Italian); dado 1664; impost 1664; rotunda 1687.

Music: (i) Musical instruments, and types of composition, etc.: opera 1644; recitative 1645; serenade (Fr. -ade, from Ital. -ata) 1649; ritornello 1675; sonata 1694; solo 1695;

theorbo, a kind of lute (Fr., from Ital. tiorba) 1605; spinet 1664 (Fr. espinette, apparently from the Italian personal name Spinetti); pedal (Ital. pedale) 1611. (ii) Musical directions: allegro 1632; largo 1683; piano 1683 (pianissimo in 1724); presto 1683; vivace 1683; all but the first of this group are from Purcell's Sonnatas in 3 Parts.

Art: relief, relievo (Ital. rilievo) 1606; morbidezza 1624; girandole, a revolving jet of water, or firework, 1634; catafalque 1641; intaglio 1644; pietà 1644; putti 1644; virtuoso 1651; bust (Ital. busto) 1653; profile 1656; vista, earlier also visto (Ital. vista, past part., then 'something seen') 1657; mezzotint 1660; attitude (Ital. attitudine) 1668; filigree 1693 is apparently from *filigreen, a variant of filigrane 1668 (Ital. filigrana); cartoon (Fr. carton, Ital. cartone) 1671; chiaroscuro 1686.

Literature; most of these words appear to have come in with the numerous French words borrowed after the Restoration: rodomontade 1612 (from the Ital. Rodomonte, the Saracen leader in Ariosto's Orlando Furioso); burlesque (Ital. burlesco) 1656; pasquinade 1658; scaramouch (Fr., from Ital. Scaramuccia, another of the stock characters of Italian farce) 1662; sonnetteer 1665; Punch, abbreviated from Punchinello, which in the form Polichinello, perhaps directly from Neapolitan Polecenella, appears in 1666 in reference to the puppet-show in which the character takes part.

Miscellaneous: ditto 1625, as adj.; gusto 'zest' 1629; bagatelle (Fr., from Ital. bagatella) 1637; hippogriff (Ital. ippogrifo) 1656, a fabulous monster; parry vb. 1672.

The eighteenth century loans from Italian are of very much the same character as those of the seventeenth, but it may be pointed out that there are none to come under the head of Military, and that there is a distinct increase in the number of geological terms. A much higher proportion than hitherto comes directly from Italian, instead of through French.

Italian life and society: cicisbeo 1718; cicerone 1726; conversazione 1740; villegiatura, residence at a country villa, 1742; alfresco adj. 1753; poco-curante adj. and n. 1762; casino 1789, a public room for social gatherings.

Birds and other Italian products: avocet (Fr., from Ital.

¹ These three from Evelyn's Diary.

avosetta) 1766; pipistrel(le), a kind of bat, 1771 (Ital. pipistrello); maraschino 1791: semolina 1797.

Medical: malaria 1740 (Ital. from mal'aria 'bad air'); influenza 1743 (there was a serious epidemic of influenza in this year; the name had previously had a general sense of 'epidemic disease' in Italian).

Geological, etc.: pozz(u)olana 1706; bronze 1721; lava 1750; madrepore 1751; tufa (Ital. tufa; cf. tuff, from Fr. tuffe from Ital.) 1770; breccia 1774; scaglia 1774; peperino 1777; solfatara 1777; travertine 1797; cipolin, a kind of marble, 1798.

Architecture: merlon 1704; socle, a plinth, 1704 (Ital. zoccolo); mezzanine 1711; colonnade 1718; arcade 1731; loggia 1742.

Music: (i) Performers, etc.: soprano 1730; impresario 1746; improvisatore 1765; maestro 1797. (ii) Instruments: mandolin 1707; trombone 1724; violoncello 1724; mandola 1758; pianoforte 1767 (the shortened piano first in 1803); viola 1797. (iii) Forms of composition: cantata 1724; duetto 1724 (duet in 1740); fantasia, pastorale, saltarello, terzetto, toccata, trio 1724; oratorio 1727; concerto 1730; aria 1742; arpeggio 1742; pasticcio 1752 (the French form pastiche not till 1878); appogiatura 1753; solfeggio 1774; tarantella 1782; finale 1783; quartet 1790; rondo 1797; barcarolle (Fr., from Ital. barcaruola) 1799. (iv) Musical directions: da capo, forte, fortissimo, maestoso, sostenuto, staccato, tutti 1724; cantabile andante 1742; adagio 1746; portamento 1774; 1730: diminuendo 1775; crescendo 1776; obbligato 1794. (v) Miscellaneous: tempo 1724; libretto 1742; bravo, as exclamation of applause, 1761; falsetto 1774; bravura 1788.

Art: picturesque 1703 (Ital. pittoresco, assimilated to picture); costume 1715; portfolio 1722; terra-cotta 1722; virtu 1722; dilettante 1733; bambino 1761; impasto 1784; sienna 1787; torso 1797.

Literature: concetto 1737; fantoccini 1771; rifacimento 1773; extravaganza 1789 (Ital. es-; the ex-is due to the common Latin prefix).

Miscellaneous: viva! 1700 n.; piston 1704 (Ital. pistone);

¹ Words dated 1724 are all from a work called A Short Explication of Foreign Words in Music Books.

riposte, in fencing (Fr., from Ital. risposta) 1707; spontoon, a kind of halberd, 1708; poplin (Fr. popeline, earlier papaline, from Ital. papalina, material made at Avignon, which was a Papal town until 1751) 1710; fracas (Fr. from Ital. fracasso) 1727; firm, trading company, 1744 (Ital. firma); imbroglio 1750; lotto 1778; condottiere 1794.

Again in the nineteenth century most of the Italian words are direct borrowings. Considerably more than half represent music, art, and literature.

Italian life and politics: vendetta 1855 (especially Corsican); camorra 1865; mafia 1875; irredentist 1882.

Scientific: gelatine 1800; mofette (Fr., from Ital. (Neapolitan) mofeta) 1822; nuraghe, an archaeological term, applied to a round fort of Sardinia (1828); gabbro 1837; graffito 1851; magenta 1860 (a dye discovered shortly after the battle of Magenta in 1859); terramara 1866.

Food, etc.: rosolio, a sweet cordial, 1819; cantaloup 1839 (from the Place-Name *Cantalupo*, a Papal villa near Rome, where the plant is said to have been grown when introduced from Armenia); salame, a variety of sausage, 1852; risotto 1884; gorgonzola (Place-Name) 1885; spaghetti 1882.

Medical: scarlatina 1803; pellagra 1811; ptomaine 1880.

Music: (i) Instruments: bombardon 1856; piccolo 1856; cymbalo 1879. (ii) Performers: prima donna 1812; flautist 1860; cantatrice 1866; diva 1883. (iii) Forms of composition, etc.: sestet 1801; sonatina 1801; mordent 1806; polacca, a Polish dance, 1813; scena 1819; intermezzo 1834; cadenza 1836; cavatina 1836. (iv) Musical directions: rallentando 1800; sforzando 1801; tremolo 1801; legato 1811; pizzicato 1845; vibrato 1861; scherzo 1862; allegretto 1879; rubato 1887. (v) Miscellaneous: improvise 1826; contrapuntal 1845; furore 1851; flasco 1855 (with reference to musical performances, like the previous word).

Art: studio 1819; replica 1824; tempera 1832; gradine 1834; predella 1848; baroque 1851; secco 1852; figurine 1854; gouache (Fr., from Ital. guazzo) 1882; tondo, a round painting, etc., 1890.

Literature: galanty-show 1821; comedietta 1836; sestina 1838; scenario 1880.

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Miscellaneous: portolano 1850, a book of sailing directions; garibaldi, a kind of blouse, etc., 1862 (named from the Italian leader of this name); pallone 1865; tombola 1880. Tirade 1801; maremma 1832; inferno 1834; these last three have now a fairly wide application.

CHAPTER VIII

THE SPANISH ELEMENT

The introduction of Spanish words into English by direct contact, as in the case of Italian, hardly begins until the sixteenth century. Before this time, it is true, French had handed on to us certain terms which they had acquired from Spanish, but which were in origin Arabic. These will be dealt with later. Of real Spanish (Romance) words, the noun cordewan, cordwain 'Spanish leather', from the Place-Name Cordova, through French, and cork, probably from Spanish corcha, seem to be the only examples of loans in Middle English, and even these are not found till about 1440 (in the Promptorium Parvulorum).

It is after the middle of the sixteenth century that Spanish words begin to be borrowed with some freedom, though they are never adopted in such numbers as Italian words. A close connexion between the courts of England and Spain obtained for a time under Queen Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon, particularly after her marriage to Philip II of Spain, and Spanish dons and señors and hidalgos became familiar figures in this country. Spanish coins made their appearance, as well as articles of trade, and a small number of military terms were adopted at this period.

But the most interesting Spanish loan-words in this period as well as later came in a different way. From the end of the fifteenth century Spanish merchant-vessels were exploring the ocean westwards from Europe, and by the time of Elizabeth Spanish-speaking settlements were sprinkled along the coasts of the Americas. When the naval power of England began to grow, and Englishmen came into contact, even though this was hostile contact, with Spaniards upon the high seas, in the West Indies and on the coasts of Mexico and South America, they adopted from them the names they used for the inhabitants, animals, plants, etc., some of these being really Spanish words, now used in specialized senses (e.g. lagarto 'lizard', used for—and borrowed

as—'alligator'), while others were taken over by the Spaniards themselves from the natives (e.g. potato). English sailors brought back such words to England, and many of them gained currency rapidly as stories and products of the New World spread in this country. Many of them appear for the first time in the tales of voyagers collected and published by Hakluyt; others in books written specially to describe the lands across the ocean, such as Eden's Decades of the Newe Worlde or West Indies, conteyning the Navigations and Conquestes of the Spanyardes with particular description of the most ryche and large Landes and Islandes lately found in the West Ocean, Frampton's Ioyfulle Newes from the Newe Founde World, and, in the early part of the next century, Purchas his Pilgrimes, Purchas his Pilgrimage, and Captain John Smith's General History of Virginia, New England, and the Summer Isles.

Literature, too, shows its share of interest in America, in the use of Spanish words borrowed there, as well as in references such as Shakespeare's to 'the new map with the augmentation of the Indies', and by direct statement, as when Spenser speaks of the way in which

through hardy enterprise

Many great regions are discovered,
Which to late age were never mentioned.
Who ever heard of th' Indian Peru?
Or who in venturous vessell measured
The Amazon huge river, now found trew?
Or fruitfullest Virginia who did ever vew?
(Faerie Queene, II, Introd.)

The seventeenth century shows the largest number of Spanish borrowings, of which some relate to Spanish life, trade, politics, etc. (duenna, toreador, junta, cortes, embargo, etc.), but the most important are again American, and this relative importance holds good through the following centuries.

Of modern English dialects, those from areas on the borders of Spanish-speaking America, or from areas in the southern United States where Spanish was once spoken, have the highest proportion of Spanish words, a good many having been absorbed there which have not penetrated into the more northerly states, or even if they have reached these have remained on that side of the Atlantic, though some may have become known in England through the medium of American books. Such are *chaparral*, *caballero*, *arroyo*, *vaquero*, *tamale*, *posada*, *poncho*, *hombre*. These as a class are not dealt with here, though some of those which have become most familiar in this country will be found given below; most of them are farming terms.

Of words adopted by Spanish from American Indian languages, only a few are given here, to illustrate the type of word thus borrowed, chiefly names of plants and animals. The reader is referred for further information to the chapter on American Indian.

Now we must deal in turn with the four centuries from 1500 to 1800, giving the relevant words in order as they appear, arranged under several headings. For the sixteenth century our headings will be (i) Spanish trade and products, (ii) words denoting persons, and titles of rank, (iii) games and dancing, (iv) naval and military, (v) miscellaneous, and finally (vi) words from America.

Spanish trade and products: peso 1555; cask 1557 (the sense of 'barrel' developed in England from that of 'helmet', see casque below); real, a Spanish coin (originally an adjective, = royal) 1588; rusk 1595 (in Drake's Voyage, in Hakluyt); panada (Florio) 1598; anchovy 1596 (Span. anchova, possibly from Basque anchoa in the sense of 'dried fish'); sherry, earlier sherris, taken as plural, 1597 (Shakespeare, 2 Henry VI); sherry, or rather shirry, appears first in Middleton, 1608; it is from a Place-Name, Span. vino de Xeres.

Persons and titles of rank: don 1523 (Wolsey, State Papers: The Archiduke Don Ferdinando); infante 1555 (Eden, Decades of the Newe Worlde), the feminine infanta in 1601; senora 1579 (but senor not till 1622; senorita in 1845); renegade (Span. renegado, a form also found in English) 1583; hidalgo 1594; grandee 1598 (Span. grande 'nobleman'); santon, a European name for a Mohammedan hermit (Span. santo 'holy') 1599; booby 1599 (Span. bobo 'fool').

Games and dancing: primero, a card-game, 1533 (Span. primera); coranto 1564 (actually French, assimilated to Spanish

¹ See Bentley, Dictionary of Spanish Terms in English, 1925.

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words in -o); spade (on cards) 1598 (Span. espada, orig. 'sword').

Naval and military: galleon 1529 (Lyndsay, Testament and Complaynt of our Soverane; Span. galeon); grenade 1532 (French, from Span. granada, orig. 'promegranate'); armada 1533 (The Turks' armada, from a letter in Ellis, Original Letters); casque 1580 (Span. casco); comrade 1591 (Span. camarada; Garrard, Art of Warre: A Souldier in Camp must make choise of two or three or more Camerades); bilbo, a sword, 1592 (from the Span. Place-Name Bilbao); escalade 1598 (Span. escalada).

Miscellaneous: tornado, first as ternado 1556 (apparently from Span. tronada 'thunder', influenced by the Span. verb tornar 'to turn'); corral n. 1582 (the verb not till 1847); cordovan (leather) 1591 (cf. the earlier cordwain); calenture, a fever, 1593; sombrero 1598 (Hakluyt: With a great Sombrero or shadow over their heads... as broad as a great cart wheele); cedilla (= a little z) 1599. Bastinado 1577 (Span. bastonada); peccadillo 1591; punctilio 1596 (Span. puntillo); bravado 1599 (Span. -ada).

American: (i) Persons: cannibal 1553 (Span. canibales, from Caribes; Eden, translation of Munster's Cosmography: Columbus . . . at ye length came to the Ilandes of the Canibals); cacique 1555 (Span. from Haitian; first in Eden, Decades); negro 1555 (Eden, Decades; neger, from which nigger comes, 1568); mestizo 1588; mulatto 1595 (Drake's Voyage; Span. mulato). (ii) American products: guaiacum, a West Indian tree, 1533 (in a medical work; a Latinized form of Span. guayaco, from a Haitian word); iguana 1555 (Eden, Decades); alligator, earlier sometimes lagarto, 1568 (Span. el lagarto 'the lizard'; Hortop, in 1568, has lagarto; of. Raleigh, 1614; the Crocodiles . . . now called Alegattos); sarsaparilla, armadillo, sassafras, batata 1577, all from Frampton, Joyfull Newes from the Newe Founde Worlde (note: The Bataias . . . a common frute in those countries . . . a victaill of much substance; but potato is a few years earlier, 1565); mosquito 1583 (Phillips, in Hakluyt's Voyages: a kinde of flie...the Spanyards called them Musketas); palmetto 1583 (Cotton, in Hakluyt's Voyages); cochineal 1586 (Span. cochinilla, through Fr. cochenille); banana 1597 (Span., from the native name in Guinea; first in a book

on the Congo); bonito, the striped tunny, 1599. (iii) Miscellaneous: manilla 1556; El Dorado 1596 (Raleigh (title), Discoverie of Guiana, with a relation of the Great and Golden Citie of Manoa, which the Spaniards call El Dorado); machete 1598 (in the anglicized form matchet).

Seventeenth century: Trade: doubloon 1622 (Fr. doublon, from Span. doblon); cargo 1657. People: creole 1604 (Span. criollo 'native', through French); desperado 1610; toreador 1618; dona 'lady' 1622 (Span. dona; cf. the recent donah 'sweetheart' 1873); picaroon 'pirate, brigand, rogue' 1624 (Span. -on); duenna 1668; matador 1674 (a term in cardplaying; with reference to bull-fighting in 1681).

Products of Spain: dorado, a fish, 1604; granadilla 1613; lime, fruit, 1622 (Span. lima, from Arab. līmah).

Political, etc.: embargo 1602; gar(r)ot n. 1622 (Span. garrote, method of execution; the verb first in English in 1851); junta 1623; cortes 1668.

Naval and military: corvette 1636 (Span. corbeta); parade,

a muster of troops, 1656 (Span. -ada).

Games and dancing: saraband 1616 (French from Span. zarabanda from Arabic); guitar 1629 (Span. guitarra); castanet
1647 (Span. castañeta); ombre 1660; manille 1674 (Span. malilla); chaconne 1685 (French, from Span. chacona, probably from Basque chucun 'pretty').

Miscellaneous: sierra 1613; caracole 1614; olio 1643 (Span. olla); escapade 1653; siesta 1655; salver 1661 (Span. salva; the suffix is English); esplanade, a level open space, 1681; plaza 1683.

American: (i) People: **peon**, a labourer, 1609; **piccaninny** 1657 (from Span. *pequeño* 'little'; first in a book on Barbados). (ii) Animals, plants, etc.: **llama** 1600; **chinchilla** 1604 (D'Acosta, History of the Indies: The Chinchilles is another kind of small beasts, like squirrels; they have a wonderfulle smoothe and soft skinne); ananas 1613 (Purchas; Span. from Peruvian nanas); cockroach 1624 (John Smith, Virginia: A certaine India Bug called by the Spaniards a Cacarootch; Span. cucaracha); manchineel 1630 (John Smith, Travels and Adventures; Fr. mancenille, from Span. manzanilla); turtle 1657 (French tortue from Span. tortuga, assimilated to Eng. turtle = dove); vanilla 1662 (Span. vaynilla); barracouta 1678; pimento 1690, 'Cayenne pepper', later 'allspice' (Span. pimienta); pulque 1693; avocado 1697 (Span. popular substitution for Aztec ahuacatl); naseberry 1698, a West Indian tree (by popular etymology from Span. nispero, from Lat. mespilus 'medlar'). (iii) Miscellaneous: llano 1613 (Purchas his Pilgrimage); muscovado, unrefined sugar, 1619 (Span. mascabado); vega, a grassy plain, 1645; rancho, a hut for the shelter of travellers, 1648; the use of this word and of the anglicized ranch in the sense of 'farm' does not appear till the nineteenth century; barbecue, a wooden framework used as support for a bed or for roasting meat, 1697 (Span. barbacoa, from Haitian); maroon n. 1666 (apparently from Span. cimarrón 'wild'; applied first to a fugitive slave in the West Indies; the verb occurs in 1724); tortilla 1699.

Eighteenth century: People: quadroon 1707 (Span. cuarteron); albino 1777; stevedore 1788 (Span. estivador); picador 1797.

Animals, etc.: merino 1781; galeeny 1796 (Span. gallina morisca 'Moorish hen').

Games and dancing, etc.: fandango 17...; domino 1719 (as a game in 1801); quadrille, a card-game, 1726 (Span. cuartillo, assimilated to the name of the dance); spadille, the ace of spades, 1728 (Span. espadilla); quadrille, a dance, 1738 (Span. cuadrilla); bolero 1787.

Cooking: marinade 1704; caramel 1725.

Miscellaneous: cordillera 1704; flotilla 1711; carmine 1712; mantilla 1717; auto-da-fé 1723 (Span. auto-de-fé); jade 1727 (Fr. le jade, earlier l'éjade, from Span. (piedra de) ijada 'stone for the colic', from supposed medicinal properties); cigar 1735 (Span. cigarro); xebec 1756 (Span. xabeque, probably of Eastern origin).

American: Animals, plants, etc.: charqui, dried meat, 1706 (Span. from Peruvian; from the Span. verb charquear comes the anglicized verb jerk 1707); agouti 1731 (Span. aguti, from the S. American native name); cinchona 1742; gallinazo, American vulture, 1760; alpaca 1792 (first of the animal's wool; Span. from Arab. al 'the' + Peruv. paco, the native name). (ii) Miscellaneous: maté 1717 (Span. from Quichua mati, a vessel made of calabash; later used for yerba maté, a herb infused in

a maté and used for drinking); sangaree, a West Indian drink, 1736 (Span. sangría); hacienda 1760; mesa 1775; ratoon, new shoot from root of sugar-cane, 1777 (Span. retoño).

new shoot from root of sugar-cane, 1777 (Span. retoño).

Most of the nineteenth century loans from Spanish are from the American side of the Atlantic, relating to farming in particular; the majority of these come to England by way of the United States. Two or three words from Spain itself, it will be observed, date from the time of the Peninsular War.

Agriculture: silo 1835 (the verb ensile in 1883).

Spanish products: cigarette 1842 (through French); esparto (grass) 1868; camisole, a kind of jacket, 1816; grenadine, material, 1865 (Fr., from Place-Name Granada).

Military and political: presidio 1808 'fort, garrison town' (still used with reference to southern United States); guerilla 1809; camarilla 1839; pronunciamento 1843; intransigent 1879 (Span. los intransigentes, party of Extreme Left in the Cortes, and in 1873—4 the extreme Republicans).

Games and dancing: cachucha 1840; monte, a cardgame 1850; pelota, a Basque game, but not a Basque name, 1895.

Literature and art: picaresque 1810 (Span. picaresco, from picaron 'a rogue'); plateresque, a style of decoration like silver work, 1842 (Span. -esco); tilde 1864.

American: (i) Farming terms: lasso 1808 (Span. lazo);

American: (i) Farming terms: lasso 1808 (Span. lazo); mustang 1808 (E. Span. mestengo); gaucho 1824 (probably of Indian origin); rodeo 1834; stampede 1834 (Mexican Span. estampida, a specialized use of the Span. word meaning 'crash, uproar'); lariat 1835 (Span. la reata, the first word being the definite article); vaquero 1837; bolas pl. 1843; quirt 1851; cinch 'girth' 1872 (Span. cincha); bronco 1883.

(ii) Plants and animals: yerba, for yerba maté, 1818; guaco

(ii) Plants and animals: yerba, for yerba maté, 1818; guaco 1822; pichiciago, an animal of Chile, like an armadillo, 1825 (S. Amer. Span. pichiciego, of native origin); guacharo 1830; nutria, the fur of the coypu, 1836 (the word originally meant 'otter'); matico 1838; grama (grass) 1851; pómpano, a fish of the West Indies and southern states, 1863 (Span. pámpano); coquito 1866.

Mining: placer 1848; bonanza 1878 (used in mining slang; in Span. the word means 'prosperity').

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Building: pueblo, an Indian village, 1818 (Span. pueblo 'people'); patio 1828; adobe 1834.

Miscellaneous: serape, a shawl, 1847; vamoose 1848 (American slang, from Span. vamos 'let us go'); canyon 1850 (Span. cañon); dago 1888 (from Span. personal name Diego); cafeteria (twentieth century; in English the accent is usually shifted from the penultimate to the antepenultimate); tango 1913.

CHAPTER IX

LOANS FROM OTHER EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

A. CELTIC

Some account has been given in an earlier chapter of the Celtic loan-words which reached English during the Old English period, chiefly from British and Irish. The next words from Celtic came indirectly, through French, which derives a small section of its vocabulary from Gaulish words adopted in the Gallo-Roman period, when Vulgar Latin was displacing the Celtic language in Gaul. Of those which passed into English, the following are the most certainly of Celtic origin; there are others which are more doubtful: gravel, lawn (of grass), league, lees, marl, ouch, quay, skein, truant, vassal (and the related valet and varlet); all these are found before 1450. A little later we have toque 1505, javelin 1513, druid 1563 (ultimately from the Old Celtic stem *druid-; cf. O.E. dry, from the O.Irish nominative form drui); perhaps tan 1604.

The next direct loans from Celtic to English are borrowings within the British Isles, from Irish, Scottish Gaelic, and Welsh; very few are earlier than the late fourteenth century, in spite of the English invasions of Ireland in the reign of Henry II. Those from Scotland are the most numerous. Some in each of the groups have been completely naturalized, and are applied to things of English origin, but for the most part these things refer to products, persons, etc., of the country from which they come.

The first Middle English loan from Ireland appears to be kern (Ir. ceithern), which dates from about 1422; lough (Ir. loch) is found in the latter part of the same century (the Irish Gaelic form of this is the same as the Scottish; see loch, below). Four words from the sixteenth century are tanist 1538 (O.Ir. tanaiste); shamrock 1571 (Campion's History of Ireland; Ir. seamróg¹);

¹ Note that Irish s before e or i is pronounced like sh.

rath 1596 (Spenser, View of the Present State of Ireland; Ir. rath): brogue 'shoe' 1586 (Ir. bróg: J. Hooker in Holinshed: awaie with his English attires, and on with his brogs, his shirt, and other Irish rags). The seventeenth century gives us five: leprechaun 1604 (Middleton, who spells it lubrican: luchrupán); ogham 1627; Tory 1646 (Ir. *tóraidhe 'pursuer', from the verb toir 'to pursue'; applied in the seventeenth century to certain Irish outlaws and bandits; it is first used in English politics in 1679; it appears as the name of a political party in 1689); galore 1675 (Ir. qo leór 'enough'); rapparee, an Irish pikeman, 1690 (Ir. rapaire, a short pike). From the eighteenth century there are only four: pollan 1713 (perhaps from Ir. poll, an inland lake); banshee 1771 (Ir. bean sidhe 'fairy woman'); shillelagh 1772 (from the name of a village in Co. Wicklow); spalpeen 1780 (Ir. spailpin); planxty, a harp tune, 1790. There are not many more in the nineteenth century: fiorin 1809 (Ir. fiorthán 'coarse grass'); blarney 1819 (originally the name of a village near Cork); colleen 1828 (Ir. cailín); keen 'lament' 1830 (Ir. caoine); carrageen 1834 (a Place-Name); crannog, a lake-dwelling in Ireland or Scotland, 1851.

English has borrowed more words from Scotland than from Ireland. The loans begin in the late fourteenth century, the earliest appearing, as might be expected, in the English-Scottish writers of the period, Barbour, Wyntoun, Dunbar, and later Gavin Douglas. The word loch is in Barbour's Bruce 1375; here also is mull, a headland (Gael. maol). The next loan is from a historical document; this is beltane, the festival of the first of May, in the Acts of James I dated 1424. In Wyntoun's Orygynale Cronykil of Scotland, c. 1425, we find clan (Gael. clann); clachan, a small village; inch (Gael. innis; I wes made priowre . . . Of the ynche wyth-in Lochlewyne). At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Dunbar has coronach 1500 (Gael. corronach); bog 1505 (Gael. bogach, from bog 'soft'); and ingle, a fire, 1508 (probably from Gael. aingeal 'fire'). Plaid appears in the Accounts of the Lord High Treasurer for Scotland for 1512: Item, the vi day of Maij, in Air, for ane plaid to be the King ane coit (Gael. plaide). Douglas's Æneis has caber (Gael. cabar 'pole': His schaft that was als rude and squair / As it had been a caber or a spar, 1513), and slogan (in

the form slogorne; Gael. slaugh-ghairm 'host'+'cry'). Later words in this century are: sonsy 'fortunate, propitious' 1533 (Gael. sonas 'good luck'; Bellenden's Livy: discending fra pe maist sonsy parte of hevin 1533); cairn 1535 (Gael. carn; Stewart's Chronicle of Scotland); the cairn-(terrier) first appears in 1910; capercailzie, -ye 1536 (Gael. capull coille 'cock of the wood'); garron 1540 (Gael. gearran; State Papers of Henry VIII); strath 1540 (Gael. srath); kyle 1549 (Gael. caol); duniwassal 1565 (Gael. duine uasal); ptarmigan 1599 (Gael. tàrmachan).

The few seventeenth century loans are all from the second half of the century: strathspey 1653 (from a Place-Name); caird, a travelling tinker, 1663 (Gael. ceard); quaich 1673 (Gael. cuach 'a cup', but this is itself a loan-word from Lat. caucus); gillie 1681 (Gael. gille); dulse, an edible seaweed, 1684 (Gael. duileasg). From the eighteenth century: whisky 1715 (Gael. uisge beatha, literally 'water of life'); pibroch 1719 (in Hardyknute, in Maidment's Scottish Ballads; Gael. piobaireachd, the art of playing the bagpipe); filibeg 1746 (Gael. feileadhbeag 'little fold'); claymore 1772 (Gael. claidheamh mòr 'big sword'); cairngorm 1794 (from the name of a mountain, Gael. Carngorm, = blue cairn); corrie 1795 (Gael. coire). Nineteenth century: sporran 1818 (Gael. sporan 'purse'); glengarry 1858 (from a Place-Name in Inverness); gralloch n. and vb. 1882 (Gael. grealach).

Neither Scotland nor Ireland has given many words to English, and words from Wales are even fewer. The earliest is crag (Welsh craig), which is in the Cursor Mundi, about 1300. Pendragon is used by Malory in 1470; it means in Welsh 'chief military leader', and it is a compound of the Celtic pen 'head' and dragon, borrowed from Latin as the name of a standard. Coracle appears in Salesbury's Welsh dictionary, 1547, in the spelling corougle, as the English equivalent of Welsh kurwgyl. Penguin, though its etymology is doubtful, may have been introduced by Welsh sailors, and be formed from Welsh pen 'head' and gwyn 'white'; it is to be found in Parkhurst's travels, in Hakluyt's Voyages, 1578. Cromlech is used in 1603, in Owen's Pembrokeshire. Gwyniad dates from 1611. The next loan is more than a century and a half later: pennill (pl. pennillion)

1784. Eisteddfodd (the original meaning in Welsh was 'session, meeting') is used in an English work in 1822.

There are four words which are probably borrowed from Cornish, though there is some doubt about each of them: gull 1430 (in a cookery book; perhaps from Corn. guilan); brill 1481 (Corn. brilli 'mackerel'); wrasse 1672 (Corn. wrach); dolmen (possibly from Cornish tolmên 'hole of stone'; first used in a French work by Latour d'Auvergne in 1796; in English first in Jephson's Brittany 1859). Another archaeological term, menhir 1840, is perhaps our only loan from Breton.

(B) Portuguese

The introduction of Portuguese words into English has been almost exclusively the result of friendly or hostile commercial relations. As in the case of Spanish, there are practically no words introduced from Portugal before the sixteenth century. What appears to be a solitary exception is marmalade, which is found as early as 1480, but comes through French, and not direct as most of our Portuguese words do. (The Port. form is marmelada, from marmelo 'quince'; it was originally a quince jam, and not made of oranges.)

During the fifteenth century, Portuguese explorers had already made their way down the coast of Africa, round the Cape, and by sea to India, and when they were followed by the English trading-fleets of Elizabeth's reign they had established colonies or trading stations on the Guinea coast, on the East African coast, in India, and as far east as China. It is in these regions that English sailors and merchants, and in later times officials and soldiers, have borrowed the greater number of the Portuguese words which we now have, though a few come from Portugal itself, and a few also from America, especially from the Portuguese settlements in Brazil and Guiana. Very few are from the West Indies. In fact, the sixteenth and seventeenth century line of demarcation between the Spanish area of trade and colonization in the west, and that of Portugal in the east, is very clearly reflected in the words which their English rivals adopted from each of them.

The sixteenth century gave us two or perhaps three words

directly from Portugal 1; reis 1555 and milreis 1589, neither of them naturalized in English, and perhaps padre 1584, which may, however, be Spanish; this word has become fairly familiar in England of recent years. From the west came flamingo (Port. flamengo, perhaps borrowed in Portugal), found first in 1565, in Hakluyt's Voyages (Sparke): The fowle of the fresh rivers . . . where of the Flemengo is one, having all redde feathers; coco(nut) 1579, in Hakluyt's Voyages (T. Stevens): Wine of the Palme tree or of a fruite called Cocos: molasses, still in common use in America, 1582 (Port. melaço, adopted in the plural); and sargasso, the 'gulf-weed', which still gives its name to the Sargasso Sea, 1598 (Port. sargaço). The first Portuguese words to be borrowed by the English in Africa were madeira, the wine of Madeira, 1585, and yam (Port. inhame, probably from a native word, though this is uncertain), which is found first in 1588. In the same year also the first words from the Portuguese in the East are recorded: buffalo (Port. búfalo, of the Indian buffalo: it is not used of the American bison until the end of the eighteenth century) 1588, from a book on China; palanquin 1588 (ultimately of Hindi or East Indian origin); typhoo (Port. tufão, probably from Urdu tūfān; the present English form has perhaps been influenced by Latin typhonus, from Greek tuphon) 1588, in Hickock's translation of Frederick's Voyages: I went a board of the Shippe of Bengala, at which time it was the yeere of Touffon: mandarin 1589 (Parke's translation of Mendoza's History of China; Port. mandarin, through Hind. or Malay from Sanscrit mantrin 'counsellor'); bayadère, a Hindu dancinggirl, 1598 (Port. bailadeira 'dancer', but through French); areca (Port., from Tamil) 1599, in Hakluyt's Voyages: Great quantie of Archa . . . which fruit they eat . . . with the leaf of an Herbe which they call Bettell.

The seventeenth century brought us another Portuguese wine, this time from Portugal: port, from the Place-Name which is now Oporto, really O Porto 'the port'; this is not till 1691, when there is a reference to 'English ships that went to Bourdeaux and took in wine, and after sailed to port O Porto, and then came home, pretending it to be port'. Tales of travellers in Brazil and

¹ These should be contrasted with the fairly numerous loans from Spain at this period.

Guiana record four more words: peccary 1613 (Harcourt, Voyage to Guiana; probably originally from a native name): macaw 1668 (Port. macao); grouper 1697 (Dampier's Voyages: Port. garupa); macaque 1698 (through French from Port. macaco, a Brazilian monkey; the word was borrowed again in the Portuguese form as the name of a South African monkey, 1774). The African name Guinea appears first (in the form ginny) as the name of the guinea-fowl in 1620, and a little later as the name of a coin (made from Guinea gold), in Evelyn's Diary, 1664. Another West African word is assagai (borrowed by the Portuguese from Arabic, and ultimately Berber), which first appears in Purchas his Pilgrimes, 1625: 'They of Muna or the Golden Coast, their armes are Pikes, or Assagaies, Bowes and Arrowes'; the spelling assegai is not found until the nineteenth century. The word dodo is from the Portuguese doudo, meaning 'stupid', applied by Portuguese sailors to this bird, which is a native of Mauritius. It is found in English first in 1628, in a letter written by a traveller to the island (E. Altham): 'Of m' perce you shall receive a iarr of ginger . . . and a bird called a DoDo, if it live'.

The year 1600 is of considerable importance in the history of Portuguese words in English, for it was on December 31st in this year that Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to 'The Company of Merchants of London Trading to the East Indies'. The regular and organized trade of the East India Company brought about closer relations with the Portuguese traders in the East, and the names of articles of commerce, and of things connected with European life in India and farther east were borrowed more freely than before. The first word recorded in this century is from the First Letter Book of the East India Company, and is dated 1602: pintado, a coloured cotton cloth (Port. pintado): '60 ffardells . . . of blewes and chekered stuffes, some fine Pinthadoes.' Other words followed quickly: caste. but in its earlier spelling cast (Port. casta 'race, descent') 1613; emu 1613 (of the cassowary, from Port. ema, originally of the crane: it is not used of the Australian emu till 1842); comprador, a native servant or house-steward in India and the Far East, still in use in China, 1615; tank (Port. tanque, from Lat. stagnum 'pond') 1616, in Terry's Voyages to the East Indies:

'they have many Ponds, which they call Tanques . . . fill'd with water when that abundance of Rain fals'; pagoda 1634 (Travels of Sir T. Herbert; Port. pagode); lorcha, a Chinese boat, 1653; palmyra, and goglet, a water-vessel of porous earthenware, 1698, both from a book on travel in India (Port. palmyra, gorgoleta).

Eighteenth century loans are fewer. From Portugal we have moidore from the beginning of the century (1711; Port. moeda d'ouro), and the title or form of address senhor from the end (1795; Murphy, Travels in Portugal). From Brazil: pareira, a drug obtained from a kind of Brazilian vine, 1715 (Port. parreira). From Africa: palaver 1735 (Port. palavra; the first reference is to a talk or conference with natives of the Gold Coast; later it passed into sailors' slang). From India: joss 'idol' (Port. deos 'god') and verandah (Port. varanda), 1711, from Lockyer, Account of the Trade with India; cangue 1727 (Port. cango), in Hamilton, New Account of the East Indies; ayah (Port. aia) 1780.

The nineteenth century adds very little to our stock of Portuguese words: margosa, an East Indian tree, 1813 (Port. amargoso), continues the Eastern loans; the last one is of quite a different character, and comes to us through French; this is massage, first found in English in 1876, and ultimately from Portuguese amassar 'to knead'.

(C) SLAVONIC

English has at no time adopted many words from Slavonic and only two or three are used at the present time without direct reference to Russia, or Poland, etc. Those which are now most familiar are sable, polka, mammoth, astrakhan, and even these are hardly in constant, popular use. There is, however, a certain number of Slavonic, chiefly Russian, words which may be considered as more or less anglicized in form if not in application, almost all of them borrowed since 1550.

One Slavonic word has already been mentioned in the chapter on Scandinavian loan-words: the Norse loan tapor-ex (see p. 73), which came originally from the Russian topor. But this did not survive the Old English period. A Middle English

borrowing is sable, from Old French, from Mediaeval Latin sabelum, which represents Russian sobol, the name of the animal; this appears in English in the fourteenth century.

It was not until the middle of the sixteenth century that England came into direct relations with Russia. When Chancellour, in 1553, sailed round to the White Sea in a search for the North-East Passage, he opened up a new avenue for English trade. The Muscovy Company, established in the reign of Elizabeth, gained command of the shipping of the eastern Baltic, and English travellers as well as merchants made their fellow-countrymen acquainted with Slavonic words and customs. Before this time the Dutch had had control of the Baltic trade, and it is worth noting that at least two words have come into English from Slavonic by way of Dutch; these are pram, praam, a type of boat used in the Baltic and the Netherlands, 1548; and the bird-name siskin 1562 (Dutch sijsken, from Slav. czyżik).

The first batch of direct loans from Russia falls between 1550 and 1590. They are as follows: kvass 1553 (recorded by Chancellour himself in his Book of the Empire of Russia, in Hakluyt); rouble 1554 (Hasse, in Hakluyt); czar and verst 1555 (both in Eden's Decades); moujik 1568; voivode 1570 (in Hakluyt); beluga and sterlet 1591 (in Giles Fletcher's Of the Russe Commonwealth).

After this there is a gap of nearly a century, which may be partly explained by the fact that during the first half of the seventeenth century the Eastern trade, hitherto carried on across the continent of Europe, and through Russia, became more and more a sea-borne trade, following the Cape route. The next few words of Russian origin came to England through other languages; calash, earlier calèche, is from a French form; it appears first in the London Gazette, 1666: The Pope taking the air in a rich calèche; steppe 1671 is apparently also through French; hospodar, the title of the governors of Moldavia and Wallachia, from a Slavonic word meaning 'lord', comes through Roumanian and French. It is after the visit of Peter the Great to England in 1697 that direct loans from Russian again begin to appear, and this visit may have been the stimulus to further acquaintance with Russian matters on the part of Englishmen.

Copeck is found in 1698 (Crull's Muscovy); mammoth 1706; knout 1716 (Parry's State of Russia); ukase 1729 (Consett, Present State of Russia, in the form oukauze); astrakhan 1766 (from a Place-Name; first with reference to a coat-lining); suslik 1774.

A dozen more words make their appearance in the nineteenth century, all but two from the first half; about half of them are words which are pretty generally known, the rest being less familiar: saigon 1801; vodka 1802; droshky 1808; mazurka (Polish) 1818; samovar 1830; Uniat 1833; tundra 1841; troika 1842; (manna)-croup 1843 (Russ. krupa); polka 1844; tarantass, a vehicle, 1850; polynia, an open stretch of water in an icefield, 1853; zemstvo 1865.

Then there is another interval, until the twentieth century has begun, when a small group of political words find their way to England; the chief of these are: duma 1905; pogrom 1905; soviet 1917; ogpu 1927; bolshevik. Another recent loan is intelligentsia 1920. Finally we may mention the word robot, which is Czech, from the stem of the verb robotith 'to work' (cognate with Russ. rabótat); this became familiar from the translation of Karel Capek's play, Rossum's Universal Robots, produced in England in 1923, and the word is now used for a machine performing the actions of a human being, or for a human being acting automatically.

(D) HUNGARIAN

The language of Hungary has given very few words to English. Two, however, are fairly old borrowings, dating from the sixteenth century. Hussar is found in 1532; it came perhaps through German, and represents Hungarian huszar (perhaps ultimately from Ital. corsaro = corsair), the name given to a body of horsemen organized in Hungary in the fifteenth century. Coach, earlier coche, from French, appears first in 1556; it is from Hung. kocsi, an adjectival form from the Place-Name Kocs, near Buda. The national name Magyar is recorded from the end of the eighteenth century, and during the early part of the present century it was popularized as the name of a particular shape in a woman's dress or blouse. Shako was apparently

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borrowed during the Napoleonic wars; it represents a French form of Hungarian $cs\acute{a}k\acute{o}$, abbreviated from Hung. $cs\acute{a}k\acute{o}s$ siveg 'peaked cap'; English has it first in 1815. Finally there are a very few recent loans, of which the most familiar are czardas, goulash, paprika.

(E) MISCELLANEOUS

Other European languages have very little representation in English. From Basque we have borrowed (through Spanish and French) bizarre 1648, and chaconne (Basque chucun 'pretty') 1685. Croatian appears in the (chiefly historical) pandour, applied to one of a body of Croatian infantrymen of the eighteenth century; it dates from 1747 in this country; the word is probably ultimately from Med. Lat. banderius, from a Germanic word. From Corsica comes the dialect form maquis (Ital. macchi 'thicket'). Lapp is represented by one early loan, morse 1475 (French, from Lapp morsha 'walrus'), and one from the eighteenth century, lemming 1713 (Norw. from Lapp. luomek).

To conclude we may give a small handful of words from Modern, as distinct from Classical, Greek: romaika, a national dance, 1625 (Gk. Rhōmaīkē); palikar, the follower of a military chief, 1812 (Mod. Gk. palikári); klepht, a Greek brigand, 1820 (Mod. Gk. klephtēs); phanariot (Mod. Gk. phanariotēs).

CHAPTER X

LOAN-WORDS FROM THE EAST

(A) ARABIC

It is from Arabic that English has borrowed the greatest number of Eastern loan-words, though it is true that a considerable proportion of them have not come to us direct. Of those which appear in the Middle English period, most have reached us through French (which often learnt them from Spanish), some perhaps directly from Spanish. The increasing trade with the Levant brought England into more immediate contact with the Arabic-speaking peoples of North Africa during the later fourteenth century, and in the sixteenth century trade and exploration farther east gave us a new source of Arabic loans: the Arabic element in the dialects of India. In the present section the Arabic words which we borrowed through Hindustani. etc., are not dealt with, nor are those which came to us through Turkish, which also has a fair number of words of Arabic origin: some notes on these will be found in the sections on Indian and Turkish.

Apparently the earliest Arabic loan-word in English is the O.E. mancus, the name of a coin of gold, equal to the Latin solidus; this represents the Arabic man-kuš = 'stamped (with a die)', and may have reached English from France or from Spain; at this time the Moors had the upper hand in Spain and southern France, and evidence that England was influenced by Moorish finance is afforded by the existence of a gold com, minted in England in the time of Offa, which besides the title Offa rex bears also an Arabic inscription. Mancus is found in English documents, chiefly charters, from the year 799 onwards; it does not, however, survive the Conquest. It appears in such contexts as: when messepreoste binnan Cent mancus goldes (Charter 41 in Oldest English Texts, 835) 'to every priest in Kent, a mancus of gold'; loca, nu pu hafast pine mancossas,

pa pe pu sohtest (Gregory's Dialogues 65) 'look, now you have your mancuses, which you were seeking', where the Latin original has Ecce habes solidos quos quaesisti; bebohte his hors to twelf mancussum (Dialogues 63) 'sold his horse for twelve mancuses', for the Latin equum suum duodecim aureis vendidit. Another Old English loan is the word ealfara, a pack-horse, borrowed as a trading or military term from Old Spanish alfaraz, from Arab. al faras 'the horse'. This has been recorded once only: in the eleventh century Letter of Alexander to Aristotle: xxx pusenda ealfarena & oxna pa de hwæte bæron 'thirty thousand packhorses and oxen which carried the wheat'. The same word, in the form auferan, is found in Old French, and it is possible that French was the immediate source of the English word.

The Arabic loan-words of Middle English begin at the end of the twelfth century, with the word saffron in the Trinity College Homilies, c. 1200: Hire wimpel wit over maked zeleu mid saffran 'her wimple white, or made yellow with saffron'; this is O.Fr. safran, from Arab. za'farān. Admiral is found in the early manuscript of Lazamon's Brut, in the sense of 'emir' (from O.Fr., from Arab. amir al, abbreviated from a phrase such as amur-albahr 'emir or commander of the sea'): pat on admiral: of Babiloine he wes ældere 'the one emir was prince of Babylon'; it is used first of an (English) admiral of the fleet in Wyntoun's Cronykil, 1423, and for the commander-in-chief of the Navy by Capgrave in 1460.

Many of the earlier Arabic loan-words have to do with science, especially mathematics, which had reached an advanced stage among the Moors. The first word in this class is the now archaic algorism, the name of the Arabic system of numeration, also used for 'arithmetic'; this is to be found in the Ancrene Rivole (see p. 84), and comes to us through O.Fr. algorisme, from Arab. al-Khowarazmi, the name of a mathematician. The next word is more commonplace: mattress, from O.Fr., probably from Ital. materasso, and ultimately from Arab. almatrah 'place where something is thrown'; also, 'a mat, bed': Goth, he seide, and maketh a bed / Of quoiltene and of materasz, Southern Legend Collection, c. 1290.

Fourteenth century loans are more numerous: barbican, in the Cursor Mundi, c. 1300 (through Fr.). In the romance of

King Alisaunder (early fourteenth century): acton, a doublet of quilted cotton worn under the armour, O.Fr. augueton, from Span. from Arab. al-qutun 'the cotton' (see cotton 1381); cubeb, a spicy berry used for flavouring, also French from Span., Arab. kabābah; dragoman (O.Fr. dragoman, dragman, Arab. targumān 'interpreter'): Alisaundre . . . is y-come to Arabye, / So me saide a drogman. Other fourteenth century loans: hazard (in Havelok the Dane); camphor, earlier camfre, camfire (O.Fr. from Arab, kafūr). Wardrobe Accounts, Edw. II. c. 1313: alkanet (Arab. al-henna: cf. henna, borrowed without the Arab. definite article, 1600) 1326; lute (O.Fr. from Arab.) 1361-2: In uno viro ludenti in uno loyt ' for one man playing on the lute ', Durham Account Rolls; alchemy 1362, in Langland's Piers Plowman (O.Fr. from Med. Lat., from Arab. al kimia, but this is from Greek kēmia); alembic (O.Fr. from Arab. al anbīq 'the cup', again ultimately from Greek) 1374, in Chaucer's Troylus and Criseyde: This Troylus in teres gan distille, / As licour out of alambic fulle faste iv, 520; cotton (Fr. from Span. from Arab. qutun) 1381-2, Compotus of Earl of Derby; almagest, used primarily for an astronomical treatise of Ptolemy, (the Arab. word has the definite article al + a loan from Gk. megiste), c. 1386, Chaucer's Miller's Tale: His almageste and bokes gret and smale; alkali (Arab. al galīy), tartar, and elixir (Arab. al-iksir), all in Chaucer's Canon's Yeoman's Tale, note especially The Philosophre stoon, / Elixir clept, we sechen fast echoon; zenith (Fr. from Span. from Arab. samt (ar-rās) 'path overhead') 1387, Trevisa's translation of Higden's Polychronicon; azimuth (Fr. from Arab. as-sumūt, 'the' + the plural of samt 'path, way', as in zenith), nadir (Ar. nadīr 'opposite to '), almanac, all in Chaucer's Treatise on the Astrolabe, c. 1391; the last word is of doubtful origin; it may be from a Spanish-Arabic al + manākh 'calendar', recorded in an early sixteenth century Spanish-Arabic vocabulary, but not elsewhere in Arabic; ream (Fr., from Arab. rizmah 'bale') 1392-3; caliph (Fr., from Arab. khalīfah) 1393, in Gower's Confessio Amantis, again in 1400 in Mandeville's Travels; amber (Fr., from Arab. 'anbar, originally 'ambergris'), syrup (Fr. sirop, from Arab. sharāb 'wine, or other drink'; cf. shrub and sherbet) 1398, in Trevisa's translation of the De proprietatibus rerum of Bartholomaeus Anglicus; cipher (Fr.,

from Span. from Arab. cifr; cf. zero 1604) 1399, Richard the Redeless: than satte summe, as siphre doth in awgrym, / That noteth a place, and no thing availeth.

It will have been noted that all of these fourteenth century words are scientific or denote objects of trade. The same is true of most of the words of the fifteenth century, but now we begin to find words relating to the Mohammedan religion. Mandeville's Travels, c. 1400, has alcoran (the holy book Alcaron), mosque (Fr., from Arab. masgid), as well as bedouin (Fr., from Arab. badāwīn. pl.), and lemon (Fr., from Span., from Arab. laimun). An early fifteenth century medical work, Lanfranc's Chirurgia, has nucha, the spinal cord, later the nape of the neck (Med. Lat. from Arab.; Alle pe cordis pat comen of pe brayn and nucha), realgar (Med. Lat., from Arab. rehi al-ghar, literally 'powder of the cave'; bou schalt in no maner leie perto realgar, ne noon violent pingis); sumac (Fr. from Span., from Arab. summac). About 1430 we find maravedi, a coin, which represents the Spanish form of Arab. Murabitin, the name of a Moorish dynasty in Spain, 1086-1147, after which the coin was named. Caraway is in the Promptorium Parvulorum of about 1440 (O.Span. alcaravea, from Arab. al karawiyā). Science is represented again by alidade, in an addition (dating from about 1450) in one manuscript of Chaucer's Astrolabe. Genet. a civet-cat (Fr., from Arab. jarnait), appears in 1481 in Caxton's Reynard the Fox; tambour (Fr., from Arab. tambur) in Caxton's Fables of Esop, 1484. The remaining words from this century are all trade-terms: quintal, a weight of a hundred pounds (Span., from Arab. gintar) 1470, Black Book of the Exchequer; antimony 1477, in a book on alchemy; garble. originally 'to sift, remove, refuse from' (through Italian, from Arab. gharbala 'to sift', perhaps itself a loan-word from Lat. cribellare), 1483, in an Act of the reign of Richard III: they will not suffre any garbelyng of theym to be made but selle good and bad at so excessyf price togedyr ungarbeled; tass (O.Fr. tasse. from Arab. tass, 'basin') 1483, in Caxton's Dialogues; tare, weight of conveyance or receptacle of goods for sale, etc. (Fr., from Span., from Arab. tarhah, from taraha 'to throw away') 1486, in the Naval Accounts, Henry VII: ij barrelles Gonnepowdre conteyning in weight besides the tare Diij lbs.

In the sixteenth century there is a reflection of the increase in

direct relations between England and North Africa, and the Levant, in the words now introduced—words denoting Eastern persons and rank, and animals and other products of Egypt. North Africa, etc., besides those which became articles of commerce. Some words still reach England by way of French or Spanish, some through Italian, but many appear to have been learnt by English travellers direct from Arabic speakers. Rebec. a musical instrument (cf. lute, 1361) 1509, is a French form of Arab. rebāb. Scientific terms are less common now, perhaps the only one from this period being algebra (Ital., from Arab. al-jebr, literally 'the putting together of broken parts'), used by Copland in 1541. There are a few naval and military terms, none of them directly from Arabic; arsenal (from Arab. dar accina'ah 'workshop') appears to have been borrowed in Romance as darsena whence it passed into Italian, was borrowed by French, and then by English; it is recorded first in 1506, in the sense of 'dock' (for ships); calibre 1567 is French from Arab. galib 'mould'; monsoon, borrowed by Portuguese from Arabic, was then borrowed by Dutch from Portuguese, and by English from Dutch; it is found in 1584. Eastern titles, etc.: mameluke 1511 (Arab. mamlūk 'slave'; used by Guylforde: there was a grete Ambasset of the Soldans towardes Venyce, that hadde in his companye manu Mamolukes); assassin 1531 (Ital. assassino, from Arab. hashshāshīn, pl., literally 'eaters of hashish'), already in its modern sense; sultan 1555 (Arab. sultan; the feminine sultana appears in 1585, and as the name of a kind of raisin in 1841); sheikh 1577, in Eden's History of Travayle (Arab. shaikh, 'old man'); muezzin 1585 (Arab. mu'aððin, participle of aðana 'to proclaim'); mufti, a Mohammedan priest, 1586 (Arab. mufti; in the modern sense of 'civilian dress' it is used first in 1816); cadi, a judge, 1590, in Webbe's Travels (Arab. qādi). One term connected with the Mohammedan religion is hegira (Arab. hijrah) 1590. Trade terms: carat (from Ital., from Arab. qurat, perhaps ultimately Greek) 1535, in Eden's Decades of the Newe World; magazine (Fr., from Arab. makāzin 'storehouses') 1583; tariff (from Ital., from Arab.) 1591, in the sense of 'list of customs duties, etc.; jar (Fr. jarre, from Span., from Arab. jarrah) 1592. Animals, plants, etc.: saker, a kind of falcon (Fr., from Span. sacro, from Arab. cagr) 1521; artichoke (from Ital.

articiocco, from Span., from Arab. al-kharshūf) 1531; civet (Fr., from Arab. $zab\bar{a}d$) 1532 ; tamarind (probably through Span., from Arab. tamr-hindi) 1533; tarragon 1538 (from Span., from Arab. tarkhon); alcohol 1543 (Med. Lat., from Arab. al-koh'l 'the collyrium'), senna (Arab. sanā), both in a medical work, 1543; carob 1548 (Arab. kharrūbah); apricot, earlier apricock 1551 (Fr. abricot and Span. albarcoque, from Arabic, but ultimately from Latin); ribes, 1562; kali 1578 (note the earlier alkali, with the Arab. definite article); albacore, a fish of the Atlantic, 1579, in Stevens's Letters from Goa, in Hakluyt's Voyages (Port., from Arab. al-bukr 'young camel'); roc, a fabulous Eastern bird, 1579, in Twyne's Phisick against Fortune (Arab. rokh); anil, the indigo shrub, hence a dye obtained from it, 1581; sash, earlier shash (Arab. shāsh 'muslin') 1590, Ralph Fitch, in Hakluyt's Voyages: Great Store of cloth is made there fo cotton, and Shashes for the Moores; giraffe (Fr., from Span., from Arab. zarāfah) 1594; zibet (Ital., from Arab. zabād, cf. civet, above) 1594; calabash 1596; hashish 1598, in Phillips's Discourse of the East and West Indies, translated from the Dutch of Linschoten; kermes, an insect from which a dye is obtained (Arab. qirmiz), 1598, used first in English in a transferred sense, of the oak on which the insect lives.

During the seventeenth century more words appear which refer specifically to Eastern life and customs, and which have not acquired a wider application or become as fully naturalized as many of the earlier loan-words. Words connected with the sea: sirocco 1617 (Ital., from Arab. sharq 'east'); tartan, a type of ship used in the Mediterranean, 1621 (Fr., from Arab. tarīdāh); felucca 1628 (Ital., from Arab. falaka 'to be round'); khamsin, a wind which blows for periods of fifty days, 1685 (Arab., = fifty).

People: fakir 1609 (Arab. faqīr 'poor man'); imam 1613, in Purchas his Pilgrimage (from Arab. imām 'precede'); ameer 1614, the variant emir in 1625 (cf. the earlier admiral), from Arab. amīr: Mahomet's . . . kinsmen in greene Shashes, who are called Emers Purchas; hákim 'governor' (Arab. hākim) 1615; sayyid, said 'lord' 1615; marabout, a hermit, 1623 (Fr., from

¹ See Sir W. Foster, England's Quest of Eastern Trade.

Arab. murābit); sufi 1653 (Arab. çufi); hakim 'doctor' 1638 (Arab. hakīm); ulema 1688.

Trade: sequin 1617 (Fr., from Ital. zecchino-and chiefly used of an Italian coin—from Arab. sikkh, a die for coining): mohair, earlier moekaire, 1619 (Arab. muxayyar); tabby 1638 (Fr., from Arab. 'attābiy, the name of a quarter of Baghdad. from a personal name). Buildings, food, clothes, etc. : couscous, kouskous (Fr., from Arab. kaskasa 'to pound') 1600, in Pory's translation of Leo's Africa: arrack 1602: mastaba 'a bench. seat '(Arab. mactabah, probably from Persian), 1603, in Knolles's History of the Turks; in the archaeological sense of a kind of tomb, in 1882; sherbet 1603 (Arab. sharbat, perhaps through Turkish; borrowed also in French, whence English took sorbet in the nineteenth century); alcove 1623 (Fr., from Span., from Arab. al gobbah 'the vault'); hammam, a Turkish bath, and sofa (Arab. soffah) 1625, in Purchas his Pilgrimes: A Sofa spread with very sumptuous Carpets of Gold . . . upon which the Grand Signior sitteth; in the modern sense in 1717; madrasah 1630 (Arab. madrasah); harem 1634 (Arab. haram); masjid 1646 (Arab. masqid; cf. mosque, borrowed earlier through French); jerid, a javelin, 1662; minaret 1682 (Arab. manārat); cabob 1690 (Arab. kabāb); mattamore, a subterranean dwelling or store, 1695 (Fr., from Arab. matmūrah); burnous (Arab. burnus) 1695, in a work on Morocco by Pierre Motteux.

Animals, plants, etc.: henna (Arab. henna); gazelle (Fr., from Arab. ghazāl), 1600, in Pory's translation of Leo's Africa; talc (Fr., from Arab. talq, perhaps from Persian) 1601; colcothar 1605 (Arab. qolqotār); curcuma 1617 (Arab. kurkum 'saffron'); azarole, the fruit of the Neapolitan medlar, 1658 (Fr., from Ital., from Arab.); jerboa 1662; albatross 1681 (with assimilation to Lat. albus 'white', from Port. alcatras, from Arabic, and perhaps originally from Phoenician, through Greek); natron 1684 (Fr., from Span., from Arab. naṭrūn, from Greek nitron).

Miscellaneous: zero 1604 (Fr., from Ital., from Arab. *cifr*, cf. the earlier *cipher*); salaam 1613 (Arab. salām); saraband 1616 (Fr., from Span., from Arabic); hadji, one who has been on a pilgrimage to Mecca, 1602 (Arab. hajj; the Arabic name of this pilgrimage, hājī, is found in English as hadji in 1704).

The eighteenth century brought in fewer words from Arabic;

most of them are concerned with plants and animals, clothes, and people: a few refer to Mohammedan religion and mythology. They are given here in order of introduction, without classification: Allah 1702, in Rowe's Tamerlane; tarboosh 1702 (Arab. tarbūsh); kiblah, the point to which Mohammedans turn in prayer, 1704 (Arab. qiblah); haik 1713 (Arab. hayk); abutilon 1731 (Mod. Lat., from Arab.); houri 1737 (Fr., probably through Pers. hūrī, from Arab. hawira 'to be black-eyed like a gazelle'); fellah 1743; shrub, a beverage, 1747 (Arab. shurb 'drink', cf. sharāb 'wine'); jinnee, genie 1748 (Arab. jinnī; the English form with j-first in 1841); ghazi 1753; hookah 1763 (Arab. huggah 'casket, cup'); candy 1769 (Fr., from Arab., from Pers. gand 'sugar'); nunnation, first with reference to a phonetic change in Arabic nouns, later used more generally, 1776 (Arab. $n\bar{u}n$ 'n'); carafe (through French) 1786; ghoul 1786 (Arab. ghūl); dirhem 1788 (Arab. dirham, from Lat. drachma); fennec (Arab. fenek), simoom (Arab. semūm) 1790, in Bruce's Travels in Abyssinia; durra, dhurra 1798; kohl (cf. alcohol 1543); coffie, a train of slaves, etc., 1799 (Arab. qāfilah).

Practically all the nineteenth century loans from Arabic were, and remain (with the exception of loofah), words with special reference to Eastern things, plants, animals, etc., or other products; again, they are fewer than in the previous century; doum 1801; afreet, afrit 1802; bismillah 1813; marabou 1823 (Fr., apparently a special use of Arab. murābit 'hermit', cf. marabout 1623); ariel, a variety of gazelle, 1832; alizarin 1835; shadoof 1836 (Arab. shādūf); wadi 1839; yashmak 1844; alfalfa 1845; razzia 1845 (Fr., from Algerian, from Arab. ghazwah 'war'); zariba 1849; jehad 1869 (Arab. jihad); sudd 1879; dahabiah, a boat used on the Nile, 1877 (the word in Arabic means 'golden', and was applied first to a gilded state barge); moucharaby 1884; loofah 1887 (Arab. lūfah); safari 1892 (Swahili, from Arabic).

(B) Indian Dialects

English has borrowed a few words, some directly and some indirectly, from Sanscrit, and these are among the very latest and the very earliest from the East. Already in the Old English

period, and previously on the Continent (as has been pointed out in Chapter II), a few Sanscrit words had passed into Germanic or English through Greek and Latin: panther, pepper, and the O.E. meregrota 'pearl'; ginger came into Late O.E. or early M.E. through French; so also cendal, sendal, a silk stuff, which appears in the late twelfth century: wið ciclatouns and cendals and deorewurde clades (see p. 111); sandal 'sandal-wood' (Scrt. candana) probably comes through Med. Lat. sandalum; it is found first in 1400. In the eighteenth century, avatar seems to have been borrowed directly from literary Sanscrit (it appears in a work by Sir W. Jones in 1784); so also suttee 1786 (in the Parliamentary Papers, E. India; Scrt. satī); tantra, one of the Hindu religious writings, 1799. Almost all those borrowed from Sanscrit during the nineteenth century are terms connected with Indian philosophy: yoga 1820; maya 1823; karma 1828; nirvana 1836; swastika 1871 (Scrt. svastika, from svasta 'wellbeing, luck'); stupa, a Buddhist monument, 1876.

But by far the greatest number of Indian loan-words in English are from Hindustani, which is developed from Old Sanscrit (and thus an Indo-Germanic dialect), but has a considerable admixture of Arabic and Persian words in its vocabulary. These appear first in the middle of the sixteenth century, but are rare until the very end of the century, after English traders had actually begun to come into direct contact with India by sea. The first trading voyage to the East by way of the Cape made by an English ship was that of James Lancaster, in the Edward Bonaventure, who sailed from Plymouth to the East Indies in 1591-2. There are four words recorded first before 1600: lac. a kind of resin, 1533 (Eden's Treatise on the Newe Indies); raj 1555 (Eden's Decades); maund, a weight, 1584 Barret, in Hakluyt's Voyages; Hind. man); banian 1599 (Hakluyt's Voyages, in the sense of a Hindoo trader; it is probably Gujerati, and has passed through Arabic and Portuguese).

In the seventeenth century, with the East India Company spreading its influence gradually across India, and travellers recording their impressions of Eastern travel, Indian words are found in considerable numbers. Few, however, have become

¹ See the account of this voyage in Sir W. Foster's England's Quest of Eastern Trade, London, 1933.

really 'popular' terms, though chintz, tussore, dungarees, kedgeree, punch, are pretty well naturalized, and cot and bungalow are common. Here is a classified list of the loans of this century:—

People and titles: nabob 1612 (Hind. nāwwāb), in Covete's Voyages: an Earle is called a Nawbob; guru (Hind. gurū), and mullah, an expounder of the Koran, or a religious leader, 1613, in Purchas his Pilgrimage: the Mulla's or Priests of the Mogores; moonshee, a native interpreter, (Hind. munshī) 1622; vakeel (Hind. vakīl, from Arab.) 1622; moolvie, a teacher (Hind., from Arab. maulavi), and ryot (Hind. raiyat, a farmer, from Arab.), 1625, in Purchas; sahib 1627 (Hind. from Arab. çāhib 'friend'); khansamah, a house-steward, 1645 (Hind., from Pers. kansaman); sice, syce 1653 (Hind. sāyis, from Arab.); mahout 1662 (Hind. mahaut); pundit 1672 (Hind. pandit); maharajah, ranee, 1698, in Fryer's Account of East India and Persia.

Textiles, clothes, etc.: chintz, really a plural, from Hindi chīnt (from Scrt. chitra 'variegated'), 1614, in Peyton's Voyages in Purchas his Pilgrimage: 530 Callicoes white and coloured... Pintadoes, Chints, and Chadors; cf. Pepys, Diary, 1663: Bought my wife a chint, that is a painted Indian callico, for to line her new study; chuddar, a square of cloth, 1614 (Hindi, chadar; see quotation above, under chintz); tussore 1619; dhoti, a loincloth, 1622; puggaree 1665 (Hind. pagri 'turban'); dungaree 1696 (Hind. dungrī), in Purchas; first recorded of trousers of this material in Kipling, 1891.

Animals, plants, etc.: datura 1662 (Hind. dhatūrā); bummalo 1673 (Mahrathi bombīla); cf. Fryer, E. India and Persia: notable for a fish called Bumbelow, the Sustenance of the Poorer sort; talipot, a kind of palm, 1681 (Hind. talpat); mongoose 1698 (Mahrathi mangūs); sambur, a deer, 1698 (Hind. sāmbar).

Food and drink: kedgeree (Hindi khichrī) 1625; punch 1632 (apparently from Hind. panch 'five', as made of five ingredients); ghee 1665 (Hind. ghi), Sir T. Herbert's Travels); pawnee 1683 (Hind. pāni 'water').

Houses, household objects, vehicles, etc.: mussuck, a waterskin, 1610 (Finch, in *Purchas his Pilgrimage*; Hind. masak); punka(h) 1625; doolie, a litter, 1625 (Hawkins, in Purchas; Hind. doli); cot 1634 (Hind. khāt 'bedstead'; later in nautical

use, 1769, and for a child, 1818); bungalow 1676 (Hind. banglā, originally an adj., = 'of Bengal'); tomtom 1693; hackery, bullock-cart, 1698 (Hind. chhakra).

Coins and measures: crore, ten million rupees, 1609 (Hawkins, in Purchas; Hind. karor); rupee 1612 (Withington, Travels; Hind. rūpīya); lac, lakh, 'a hundred thousand', especially of rupees, 1613 (Peyton, in Purchas his Pilgrimage; Hind. lākh); pice 1615; seer, a weight, 1618 (Hind. sēr); cowrie 1662 (Hind. kawrī).

Official: durbar 1609 (Hawkins, in Purchas; Hind. darbar); choky, a custom or toll house, 1608 (Saris, in Purchas; Hindi chaukī; by the nineteenth century it had become a slang term for 'prison'); cutcherry, an office, 1610 (Hawkins, in Purchas; Hind. kachahrī); chop, official seal or stamp, 1614 (Milward, in Purchas: The King sent us his chop; Hindi chhāp 'impression'; now chiefly used in China, = 'brand, trade-mark').

Miscellaneous: ghât, a mountain-pass, 1603 (R. Johnson, Kingdom and Commonwealth); shikar, hunting-expedition, 1613 (Finch, in Purchas; shikari 'hunter' not till 1827); maidan 1625 (Purchas his Pilgrimes: The Medon, which is a pleasant greene, in the middest whereof is a May-pole to hang a light on; Hind. maidān); juggernaut, a figure of Vishnu, 1638 (Bruton, in Hakluyt; Hind. jagannath 'lord of the universe'; figuratively in 1854); pucka 1698 (Hind. pakka 'ripe, of full weight').

Here already have been examples of development of meaning in Anglo-Indian use which are foreign to the original Hindustani, etc.; the same thing happens also in later loans, e.g. wallah, chit, jungle, pug, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The distribution of new words in this century is remarkable: out of thirty-five words now recorded for the first time, only four occur before 1750; there seems to be a slackening of interest in Eastern travel, and the East India Company was apparently carrying on much the same kind of trade as in the previous century. But in the middle of the century India and the Company were disturbed by the French bid for power, and after Clive's successful campaigns before, and after the beginning of, the Seven Years' War (1756), a renewed interest in, and growing knowledge of, India is reflected in a new period of borrowing.

Now we have again a number of words denoting persons and rank, some of them military, rather fewer concerned with textiles and clothes, a fair number of plants and animals, etc. The total number of words first recorded in the seventeenth century is fiftyone, sixteen more than in the eighteenth.

Persons, etc.: nawab 1758 (Hind. $n\bar{a}ww\bar{a}b$, cf. the earlier nabob); ressaldar 1758 (Hind. $rvs\bar{a}lad\bar{a}r$); jemadar 1763 (Hind. from Arab.); Nizam 1768 (Hind., from Arab. $ni\bar{d}\bar{a}m$ 'order, arrangement'); wallah 1776 (from the Hind. agent-suffix $-w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$); baboo 1782 (India Gazette); soucar, a Hindu banker, 1785 (Hind. $s\bar{a}uk\bar{a}r$ 'honest').

Textiles, etc.: gunny 1711 (Lockyer, Account of the Trade with India: When Sugar is pack'd in double Goneys; Hind. gōni 'sack'); bandana 1752 (Long, Bengal: Plain taffaties, ordinary bandannoes; Hind. bāndhnū 'a method of dyeing'); jaconet 1769 (from a Place-Name, Jagannathi, in Bengal); sari 1785.

Animals and birds: argala, a kind of stork, 1754 (Hind. hargila); myna 1769 (Hind. mainā); monal, a kind of pheasant, 1769; muckna, an elephant, 1780 (Hind. makhnā); cheetah 1781 (Hind. chītā from Scrt. chitta 'spotted').

Plants, etc.: sunn, fibre, 1774 (Hind. san); tatty, a kind of matting, 1792 (Hind. tatti 'wicker-frame'); jute 1746 (Bengali jhoto).

Objects of ordinary use: anna 1727 (Hamilton, New Account of the East Indies; Hind. āna); howdah 1774 (Hind. haudah, from Arab.); chatty, a water-pot, 1781 (Hind. chāti); chit 1785 (Hind. chitthi); bangle 1787 (Hind. bangrī); bidree 1794 (Hind. bidri).

Districts: mofussil 1781 (Hind. from Arab.); taluk 1799 (Hind. from Arab.).

Natural features: nullah, watercourse, 1776 (Hind. $n\bar{a}l\bar{a}$); jungle 1776 (Hindi jangal 'open desert').

Buildings: dåk 1727 (Hamilton, New Account of the East Indies); gurry, a fort, 1786 (Hind. garhī).

Miscellaneous: baksheesh 1755; shampoo 1762 (Hind. chāmpo, imperative of chāmpnā 'to press, kneed, shampoo'); nautch, a dance, 1796 (Hind. nāch).

Of these only bandana, jute, bangle, and shampoo have come into widespread use.

The number of loans increases in the nineteenth century, partly helped by the appearance of India in fiction as well as in further travels and memoirs. Terms for fabrics, etc., are fairly frequent, as are also names of plants and animals, and of things used in Indian life. Again only a few are at all widely used: cashmere, chutney, dinghy, gymkhana, loot, nainsook, polo, puttee, pyjamas.

People: sowar, cavalry trooper, 1802 (Hind. sāwar 'rider'); dacoit 1810 (Williamson, East Indian Vade Mecum; Hind. dākāit); thug 1810 (Hind. thag 'deceiver, robber'); moonsif 1812 (Hind. from Arab. munçif 'just'); chuprassi 1828 (Heber, Indian Journals; Hind. chaprāsī); dhobi 1860 (W. H. Russell, Diary in India); chela 1883 (Sinnett, Esoteric Buddhism; Hind. chēlā 'slave, pupil').

Textiles, garments, etc.: puttee 1800 (Hind. patti 'bandage'); nainsook 1804 (Hind. nainsukh, nain 'eye' + sukh 'pleasure'); cashmere 1822 (Place-Name Kashmīr); topi 1826; tat, canvas, 1840; numdah, a kind of cloth; dhurrie, a cotton fabric, 1880 (Hind. dari); pyjamas 1886 (Hind. pājāma, from pā'e' leg' + jāma 'garment').

Animals, fish, etc.: gazel, a kind of ox, 1800; gaur 1806; gavial, crocodile, 1825 (Hind. ghariyāl); dhole, the Indian wild dog, 1827; panda, the cat-bear, 1835 (Himalayan); mugger 1844 (Hindī magar); mahseer, a fish, 1854; markhor, a kind of goat, 1867 (Pushtu); krait 1874 (Hind. karait).

Plants: sissoo, E. Indian tree, 1810 (Hind. sīsō); toon 1810 (Hind. tun); munjeet 1813 (Hind. mayīth); mudar 1819 (Hind. madār); deodar 1842 (Hind. de'odar, from Scrt. deva dara 'divine tree'); sola, the pith of an E. Indian plant, 1845 (Bengali); purree, a yellow pigment, 1852 (Hind. pōōri).

Household objects, etc.: lota(h), a brass vessel, 1819; charpoy 1845 (Hind. chārpāi 'bedstead', = 'four feet'); tonga 1880 (Hind. tānga).

Food: chupatty 1810 (Williamson, East Indian Vade Mecum; Hindi chapātī); chutney 1813 (Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, 1813).

Military: tana, military post, 1803 (Hind. thāna); kukri, a sword, 1811; gingall, jingal, a fire-arm, 1818 (Hind. janjal); tulwar, kind of sabre, 1834; dumdum 1897 (Place-Name).

Miscellaneous: pachisi, a game, 1800; zillah, a district, 1800;

dinghy 1810 (Williamson; Hind. $deng\overline{\imath}$); loot 1839 (Blackwood's Mag.; Hind. $l\overline{\imath}ut$); pie, a coin = $\frac{1}{3}$ of pice, 1859; gymkhana 1861 (Hind. gendkhana 'racket-court'); pug 'footprint' 1865 (Hind. pag 'foot'); tamasha 'show' 1872 (Hind. from Arab.); polo 1872 (Daily News; Hind $\overline{\imath}$, = 'ball').

Some further loans which have reached English through Hindustani, but are in origin Persian, will be found in a separate section under *Persian*.

Another Indian dialect which is represented in English by a very few words only, is the language of the Gipsies, Romany, surviving in the British Isles only among the Welsh gipsies and on the borders of Wales. The word pal is probably from the Romany prāl 'brother, mate'; it is found in English in 1681, among the depositions in the Hereford Diocesan Registers: Wheare have you been all this day, pall? Rum 'queer, odd', is usually supposed to be a development of the Romany word Rom = gipsy; it is found in 1774. A word which has become familiar through the writings of Borrow is gorgio = non-gipsy (1851); though it has never become naturalized in English.

Finally, there is a small group of words from Singhalese, of Southern Ceylon: wanderoo, a monkey, 1681; poon 1699 (Dampier's Voyages; Singhal. pūna); tourmalin 1759 (through Fr., from Singhal. tormalli 'cornelian'); bo-(tree) 1861; beri-beri, a tropical disease, 1879.

(C) Persian

England has also borrowed a number of words from the Persian branch of the Indo-Germanic family of languages. The earliest Persian loans are indirect, coming into Old English by way of Greek and Latin, the usual medium of transmission of Eastern culture as well as of words in early mediaeval times. Old English has pard 'leopard', tigris 'tiger', paradis (see p. 37), all of which are ultimately from Old Persian or Iranian. Paradise represents Greek paradeisos 'a park, enclosure', which is from Persian pairi-daēza 'to enclose'. After the beginning of the Middle English period, Eastern words for a time come into English through French: scarlet c. 1250 (from O.French, probably through Italian, from Pers. saqalāt, a kind of rich cloth, often

of a red colour); tiger, fourteenth century, a re-borrowing from O.French tigre (O.E. retains the classical form tigris, and has also the Latin plural tigres, until about 1000, when an English plural tigras appears); the O.Persian word from which tiger is derived is apparently tigra, meaning 'something sharp, an arrow'; Persian has also given us the chess terms rook, check. checkmate, and chess itself, the last being from the O.French plural esche(c)s, from eschec 'CHECK', which comes through Arabic from Persian shāh 'king'; checkmate represents Pers. shāh māta 'the king is dead'; while rook, the earlier term for a 'castle' is from O.Fr. roc. from Persian rukh. Other fourteenth century loans are: azure c. 1325 (O.Fr. from Pers. lajward 'lapis lazuli'); salamander (from O.Fr., from Lat. from Gk.; cf. Pers. samander) 1340, in the Azenbite of Invyt: pe salamandre pet leuep ine pe uere 'that lives in the fire'; taffeta 1373 (Exchequer Rolls of Scotland; O.Fr. from Ital., from Pers. tāftah); borax, earlier boras (O.Fr. from Pers. būrah), arsenic (O.Fr., from Lat., from Gk., from Hebrew, from Pers. *zarnīka 'yellow ornament'); both these in Chaucer; musk (ultimately from Pers. musk, misk) 1398, in Trevisa's translation of the De proprietatibus rerum of Bartholomaeus Anglicus. There are four fifteenth century borrowings from Persian, still through French and Latin: mummy (Fr. momie, from Med. Lat. from Arab. mūmīya, from Pers.) c. 1400, in Lanfranc's Chirurgia; balas, a kind of ruby (Fr., from Med. Lat., from the Pers. Place-Name Badakhshān, near Samarkand) 1414 (York Wills); nenuphar, water-lily, 1425 (Pers. nīnūfar); bezoar 1477 (through Fr. and Arab. from Pers. pād-zahr 'antidote, counter-poison'). A few more Persian loans through French are found in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries: perhaps spinach 1530 (through Fr., Span., Arab., probably from Pers.); jasmin 1548 (Fr., from Arab. yás(a)mīn, from Pers. yāsmīn); julep, a sweet drink, 1624 (Fr., from Arab. julab, from Pers. gulab 'rosewater'); lilac (Fr. lilac, a form given by Cotgrave, now lilas, from Span. from Arab. from Pers. līlak) 1625, in Bacon's essay On Gardens; babouche, a slipper, 1695 (Fr., Arab., from Persian). One quite recent loan through French is Khedive (Fr. from Turkish, from Pers. khadiv 'prince'), the title granted in 1867 (May 14) to the ruler of Egypt (Ismail Pasha), as viceroy of the

Sultan, by the Turkish government; cf. The Times, May 24, 1867: His Highness is to be called 'Khedive', which is regarded as the Arabic equivalent of 'King'.

During the early modern period a few words from Persian are adopted in English through literary or scientific Latin: satrap 1380 (Wyclif; Lat., from Gk. satrapēs, from Pers. $x \hat{s} a \theta r a - p \bar{a} v a n$ 'protector of the country'); asafoetida 1398 (Trevisa's Bartholomaeus; from Lat., the second element being Lat. foetida 'stinking' and the first Pers. azā 'mastic'); tiara (originally of a Persian head-dress), first in an anglicized form tiar, 1513, in Douglas's Eneis; tiara in 1555, in Watreman's Fardle of Fashions: magus, a magician, 1555 (Chaucer has the personal name Simon Magus); naphtha 1572; cinnabar 1599 in Hakluyt's Voyages (Pers. zanjifrah); gypsum (Pers. jabsīn 'lime') 1646, Sir Thomas Browne.

During the Middle Ages the trade with Persia and the Far East had been an overland trade, which accounts for the very roundabout route by which in this period Persian words had reached English. But with the discovery of the seaward way to the East, in the fifteenth century, and the expansion of English sea-borne commerce, Englishmen came into contact with Persianspeaking peoples, and borrowed words directly from them. During the fifteenth century also, the control of the trade-route to Persia passed from the hands of the Tatars into those of the Turks, and English traders learnt a few Persian words through Turkish. Again, there was a considerable Persian element in Hindustani, and English travellers and merchants began in the late sixteenth century to bring such words home together with other Indian loans.

Persian words borrowed through Turkish: spahi, a horseman (Pers. sipāhī), 1562, really a literary loan, since it appears in Shute's translation of Cambini's Turkish Wars; giaour, an unbeliever, applied by Mohammedans especially to Christians (Pers. gaur), 1564, Jenkins in Hakluyt's Voyages; jackal (Turk. chakāl, from Pers. shagāl), 1603, Biddulph in Purchas his Pilarimage; serai, an inn (Pers. seraī) 1609, Finch in Purchas his Pilgrimage.

Persian words borrowed in India: tabasheer, a siliceous substance found in the joints of bamboo, and used medicinally

(Pers. tabāshīr) 1598, Phillips's translation of Linschoten's Travels; sirdar (Hind. sardar 'commander') 1615, Sandys: Travels; cummerbund (Hind. kamar-band 'loin-band') 1616; lashkar, originally a camp of native soldiers, 1616. Sir T. Roe in Purchas; mohur, gold coin of India, 1621 (Pers. muhr); lascar, an East Indian sailor, originally the same word as lashkar, 1625, Purchas: I caused all my Laskayres to remaine aboord the Vnicorne; zemindar, a collector of revenue, 1683; havildar, a sepoy non-commissioned officer (Pers. hawāl-dār, the first element of which is from Arabic), subahdar, native officer, both in 1698, in Fryer's Account of the East Indies. There are two Persian loans from this source in the early eighteenth century, and then there is the same gap as we found in the Hindustani loans (see p. 223) until approximately the time of the Seven Years' War: kincob, a rich stuff embroidered with gold or silver (Pers. kimkhāb) 1712, in an advertisement in the Spectator: One Isabella colour Kincob Gown, flowered with Green and Gold; sepoy (cf. spahi, above) 1717; seersucker, a fine linen fabric (Pers. shīr-o-shakkar = 'milk and sugar'), 1757, in Guyon's New History of the East Indies; zenana 1761 (Pers. zanāna); khidmatgar, a male servant, 1765; purdah, a curtain, hence, a system of seclusion of women (Pers. pardah), 1800. The last two are comparatively recent: khaki (Hind. khākī 'dusty', from Persian), first used for the uniforms of the Guide Corps (under Lumsden and Hodson) in 1848; recorded first in English in 1857 (of the fabric; of the colour, in 1863); nilgai 1882 (Pers. $n\bar{\imath}la\bar{a}w$, = 'blue cow').

Words probably borrowed direct from Persian: Most of these are found first in books of travel; they represent Persian titles, and names of various classes of people, coins, clothes, food, and terms of government, with, later, a few terms from Persian mythology: shah 1564, Jenkinson's Travels, in Hakluyt: Shaw Thamas; toman 'ten thousand (men, dinars, etc.)' (Pers. tūmān), 1566, Edwards in Hakluyt; dervish (Pers. darvish 'poor') 1585, T. Washington's translation of Nicholay's Voyages; divan 1586 (M.Pers. devān, now dīwān), originally a council of state, then successively a hall, a raised part of the floor, a long cushioned lounge extending along a wall, and so on; (cf. the Fr. douane, with a different sense, through Ital. dovana); caravan, earlier carouan (Pers. kārwān), a party of travellers, with their baggage-beasts, etc., 1599 (Hakluyt); the form caravan is perhaps through French; bazaar (Pers. bāzār 'market'); the earliest form in English, bazarro, is perhaps through Italian: A faire place or towne, and in it a faire Bazarro for marchants, Hakluyt, 1599; basar, probably direct from Persian, appears in 1616 (Purchas); caravanserai 1599 (Hakluyt; Pers. kārwān-serāī).

Seventeenth century: pad(i)shah, a title applied originally to the Shah, 1612; pilau 1612 (Pers. pilāw; the alternative form pilaff is a Turkish development); mirza 1613 (Purchas; Pers. mīrzād = prince + born); ban, a 'learned' loan (it was a title applied to the viceroy of certain military districts of Hungary, and had been introduced from Persia); firman, an edict, licence, permit, 1616 (Sir T. Roe in Purchas; Pers., from Scrt. pramāna 'command'); dinar, an Oriental coin, 1634 (Sir T. Herbert's Travels, of coins in the territories of the Mogul; Pers., from Late Greek, from Lat. dēnārius); shawl (Pers. shāl), 1662, in Davies's translation of Olearius's Voyage: The richer sort have . . . another rich Skarf which they call Schal, made of a very fine stuff, brought by the Indians into Persia; papooshe 1682 (Pers. pāpōsh; cf. babouche, above, through French); peshwa (Pers., = 'chief'), 1698, in Fryer's Account of the East Indies.

Eighteenth century: These are very few, and all from the second half of the century: carboy 1753 (Pers. qarābah 'large flagon'), in Hanway's Travels: I delivered a present . . . of oranges and lemons . . . and 6 Karboys of Ispahan wine; used for chemicals, 1883; peri (Pers. perī) 1777, in Richardson's Persian Dictionary (English section); again in 1786, in Beckford's Vathek; bulbul (Pers., from Arab.) 1784, in Sir William Jones's Memoirs; simurg, a bird of Persian legend, 1786, in Beckford's Vathek; attar 1798 (originally Arabic), in Pennant's Hindostan.

Nineteenth century Persian loans are even fewer: cuscus, the root of a grass, 1810 (Williamson's East India Vade Mecum; Pers. khas-khas); narghile 1839 (Miss Pardoe's Beauties of the Bosphorous; Pers. nārgīleh, from nargīl 'coco-nut'); koh-i-noor (Pers. kōh-i-nūr' mountain of light'), the name of a diamond which became one of the British crown jewels on the annexation of the Punjâb in 1849, hence any very fine diamond; used already

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by Thackeray in the general sense in 1849; pashm, soft downy fur, 1880.

(D) TURKIC DIALECTS

The Asiatic languages known under the general name of Turkic are represented in English by words from the dialects of Tatar and Osmanli (Ottoman, or Turkish proper). Our first connexion with the Turks was overland across the continent of Europe, and the earliest Turkish loans are usually through French, sometimes also by way of a Slavonic dialect, the Slavs being the nearest neighbours of the Turks in the west. The earliest Turkish word in English seems to be the Turkish khān 'lord, prince' (in O.Fr. as can, chan, cham), found already in Mandeville's Travels, c. 1400: the grete Caan of Cathay, and thus applied to the ruler of an empire farther east than Turkey itself.1 The word is found later in English in the forms chan and cham, and also in the Turkish form khan. Of the subsequent borrowings from Turkish through European languages, only horde, tulip, bergamot (pear), and vampire have become fully naturalized; the remainder are still used almost exclusively with their original eastern application: janissary, one of a former body of Turkish infantry, especially a member of the Sultan's body-guard, 1529 (perhaps through Italian); horde (Turki orda 'camp', later applied to a nomadic tribe: the Golden Horde was the name applied to one such tribe which forced its way into Eastern Russia in the thirteenth century; the initial h-appears first in Polish, whence the word passed into French, and so to English); first in 1555 (Eden's Decades), and in a general sense, of a large crowd or company, in Purchas his Pilgrimes, in reference to the natives of Greenland. Tulip is from O.Fr. tulipe, tulipan, perhaps through Ital. tulipano, from a Turkish colloquial form tulband 'turban' (the flower being supposed to resemble this), probably ultimately Persian; the tulip is first mentioned by a European in c. 1554, when it is referred to by the Emperor's ambassador to the East, Busbeq; in English it appears in 1578, in Lyte's translation of Dodoneus. Seventeenth century loans through European languages are: koumiss (Tatar kumiz, coming into French

¹ The first European missions to the Mongol court date from the thirteenth century.

through Russian) 1607, in Topsell's Four-footed Beasts; bergamot 1616 (through Ital. bergamotta from Turk. beg-armudi 'prince's pear'); caique, a skiff (through French from Turk. kaik), 1625, in Purchas: when the Great Turke goeth vpon the water, whose Caikes are most rich and beautifull to behold; dey 1659 (Turk. daī 'maternal uncle'); shabrach, a saddle-cloth, 1667 (probably through German); odalisque 1681 (Turk. ōdaliq). Eighteenth century: vampire 1734 (from French, from Magyar vampir, from Slavonic, and apparently ultimately from Turk. uber 'witch'); salep (Turk. sālep), 1736, in Bailey's Household Dictionary; caracal 1760 (Fr., from Turk. qarahqulah). The word begum, which we borrowed from Hindustani, is in origin Turkish (bigīm); it appears in English in 1634, in Sir T. Herbert's Travels; a fairly recent loan-word is kourbash, a whip, 1814, from Turkish through Arabic.

During the sixteenth century, English merchants, particularly the Levant Company, were trading with Constantinople by way of the Mediterranean, while others made their way to Turkey by the overland route. At this period the first direct loans from Turkish into English were made. Among the sixteenth century loan-words turban, coffee, and caviare are the best known; most of the words borrowed in this and the following century are names of Turkish products, or classes of people. During the eighteenth century there is an almost complete lack of Turkish loans, but a number of new words appear in the nineteenth century.

Sixteenth century: sanjak, an administrative district in the Turkish Empire (Turk. sanjāq = 'banner'), 1537, in the State Papers, Henry VIII; turban, earlier also tolipane, tulbant, in its original sense (cf. tulip, above; Turk. tulbant), 1561, in Jenkinson's Voyages; the form torbant is used by Hickock in his translation of Frederick's Voyages, 1588; vizier (Turk. vezīr, but Arabic in origin), 1562, in Shute's translation of Cambini's Turkish Wars; dolman 1585 (Turk. dōlāmān), in Washington's translation of Nicholay's Voyages: they are clothed with a long gowne, which they do call Dolyman, girded with a large girdle of silke; caftan, a long tunic, caviar(e) (Turk. khāvyār), both in 1591 (the latter in the form cavery) in Fletcher's Russe Commonwealth; coffee (Turk. káhveh), first in the form chaoua, in Phillips's Linschoten, 1598, and then as coffa in Capt. John

Smith's Travels and Adventures, 1603-30: Their [the Turks'] best drinke is Coffa of a graine they call Coava; bey (= prince) 1599, in Hakluyt: The By who is the governour of the Ilande.

Seventeenth century: aga, chief officer in the Ottoman Empire (Turk. aghā), 1600, in Pory's translation of Leo's History of Africa; effendi 1614 (Turk., but originally Greek), 1614, in Selden's Titles of Honour; kiosk, a pavilion (Turk. kiūshk, perhaps through French), 1625, in Purchas; kaimakan, a lieutenant, deputy, 1645; pasha 1646; seraskier, the Turkish minister of war, 1684, in the London Gazette.

Eighteenth century: **vali**, civil governor of a Turkish province, 1753, in Hanway's *Travels*.

Nineteenth century: fez, 1802 (Turk. fes, supposed to be from the Place-Name Fez, in Morocco); chibougue (the latter from French), a long pipe, 1813, in Byron's Corsair; kavass, an armed constable, 1819 (Turk. gawwās 'bow-maker'); yataghan, a sword, 1819 (Turk. yātāghan); elchee, an ambassador (Turk. īlchī), 1828, in Blackwood's Magazine: so well described by an English Elchee; latakia (Turk., Place-Name), 1833, in Disraeli's correspondence; bosh (Turk., = empty, worthless) 1834, in Ayesha, a novel by Morier, through the popularity of which the word is said to have gained currency in this country; tarpan, a wild horse (Tatar) 1841; kismet (Turk., from Arab. qismat) 1849; bashi-bazouk, a mercenary soldier, 1855; mudir, governor of a village, a Turkish use of an Arabian word, 1864 (Athenaeum); macramé (Turk. magrama 'towel') 1869, in a work on lace-making; vilayet, a province of the Turkish Empire (ultimately Arabic) 1869 (The Times); zaptieh, a Turkish policeman, 1869 (Tozer's Highlands of Turkey); irade, a written decree (originally Arabic), 1883.

(E) Dravidian

The non-Indo-Germanic dialects of Southern India, grouped under the name *Dravidian*, are represented in English by a small number of loan-words from Tamil (spoken in south-east India and north Ceylon), from a variety of this known as Malayalam (spoken in south-west India), and from Telugu (spoken along part of the east coast of India, north of Madras). The history and

chronology of these words in English is the same as that of loans from Hindustani, etc. They appear first in the sixteenth century, and are most common in the latter part of this century, in the seventeenth, and in the late eighteenth century. A few of them have passed into current English use.

Sixteenth century: calico, earlier also calicut (from the Place-Name Calicut, on the Malabar coast), 1540 (Lancashire Wills): a surplyse and an elne kalyko cloth; betel 1553 (Eden, Treatise on the Newe Indies; through Portuguese, from Malayalam vettila); coir, fibre, earlier also cairo, which is through Portuguese (Malayalam kāyar 'cord'), 1582: The Moores which trade to Sofala in great ships, that have no decks nor nailes, but are sowed with Cayro, Lichefield's translation of Castañeda's Conquest of the East Indies; the spelling coire is found in 1697; mango 1582, in the same translation (Port. manga, from Tamil mān-kāy); copra (Port., from Malayalam koppara 'coco-nut') 1584, Barret in Hakluyt's Voyages; curry, earlier carriel (Port. caril, Tamil kari, probably two periods of borrowing), carriel in 1598 (Phillips's Linschoten), currey in 1747 (Art of Cookery); coolie 1598 (also in Phillips; Tamil kūli).

Seventeenth century: pariah, a low caste of South India (Tamil paraiyar, pl. of paraiya, 'hereditary drummer'), 1613: The Pareas are of worse esteeme... reputed worse than the Divell (Purchas); atoll 1625 (probably Malayalam adal 'uniting'); cheroot 1669 (Tamil shuruttu, through French); catamaran 1697; teak (Port. teca, from Malayalam tēkka), and tindal, native petty officer (Malayalam tandelu 'head-man'), both in Fryer's Account of the East Indies, 1698.

Eighteenth century: corundum 1728 (Tamil kurundum 'ruby'); bandy, a cart, 1761 (Telugu); anaconda 1768 (Tamil); bandicoot, a kind of rat, 1780 (Telugu pandi-kokku); mulligatawny 1784 (Tamil milagu-tannīr 'pepper-water').

Nineteenth century: yercum, a shrub, 1826 (Tamil); patchouli, a plant, also the perfume obtained from it 1845 (Tamil).

(F) SEMITIC DIALECTS

The Arabic dialect of Southern Semitic has already been dealt with in Section A of this chapter. The present section covers

Northern Semitic, including the dialects of Phoenician (long extinct as a spoken language), Hebrew, and Aramaic. There are very few traces of Phoenician in English; the word sack, borrowed in Old English from Latin, which took it from Greek, is possibly of this origin, and so perhaps are the names of some of the Greek letters, which are more or less familiar in English. Many of the Old and Middle English loan-words which may be traced back to Semitic are from the Hebrew of the Bible, and reach English through Greek and the Latin of the Vulgate. In Middle English a certain number of Semitic trade terms come through French. Words borrowed directly from Hebrew or Aramaic are not very common; they are chiefly Biblical words. adopted during the sixteenth century, and later loans connected with the observances of the Jewish religion. Some Old English loans from Latin and Greek which are Semitic in origin will be found in Chapter II. Others borrowed at this period, which survived in present-day English (though some may be later re-borrowings) are amen, cassia, hemp, hosanna, manna, rabbi, Sabbath, Satan, tunic, seraphim, cherubim. The word seraph. as a singular noun, is not found until 1667 (in Milton's Paradise Lost); cherub is used first by Wyclif, c. 1382: a palme bitwix cherub & cherub; the Hebrew form is $k'r\bar{u}b$.

Middle English loans through French are endive, jasper, emerald, coral, cinnamon, sapphire, all of the thirteenth or fourteenth century; nitre and myrtle, in Lanfranc's Chirurgia, c. 1400; jubilee (Heb. yōbēl) in Wyclif, 1382; Pasch(al) (Heb. pesakh 'passover') 1427, in the records of St. Mary at Hill, in the sense of an Easter candle or candlestick.

Some Hebrew loans of the Middle English period are literary or scientific borrowings through Latin. A number of them are Biblical words, from the Latin of the Vulgate, found for the first time in Wyclif's translation of the Bible (1382). The word which is now Messiah has appeared in several different forms: Messyas, the Greek and Latin form of Aramaic m'shīhā 'anointed' is the usual Middle English form; the fourteenth century has also the French Messye: the final -ah, approximating more closely to the Aramaic, is not found until 1560, in the Geneva Bible; subsequently this is the usual form. Galbanum, a gum resin, is a Middle English loan from Latin, and ultimately from Heb.

chelbenāh. Mammon, occurring first in Langland, is late Lat., from Gk., from Aramaic māmon. The following are recorded first in Wyclif: Abaddon (as a proper name); babel (Heb. babel): Therfor was called the name of it Babel, for there was confounded the lippe of all the erthe; in the general sense of 'confused sounds', it is found first in Skelton; behemoth (Heb. b'hēmōth); corban; ephod (Heb. āphad = 'to put on'); leviathan (Heb. livyāthān): Whether maist thou drawen out leuyethan with an hoc? nard; shibboleth (Heb. shibboleth; in a transferred sense, in 1658); teraphim. Later loans from Mediaeval or ecclesiastical cabbala 1521 (Med. Lat. from Heb. qabbālāh 'tradition', hence the oral tradition from the time of Moses to the Rabbis); in the sense of 'secret intrigue', it is used by Clarendon (Hist. of the Rebellion) in 1646; another form, cabal, probably through French, appears in 1616. Lotus is first recorded as used by Sir Thomas Elyot in 1540. Gehenna is found in 1594 (Heb. qēihinnōm).

Other Semitic borrowings, the forms of which seem to be derived directly from Hebrew, belong to the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries (mostly from translations of the Bible), and to the nineteenth century; one or two of the latter are from the German-Jewish dialect, Yiddish. Selah 1530 (Heb. selāh); hallelujah 1535 (Coverdale); shekel 1560 (Geneva Bible; Heb. shegel); torah 1577 (Heb. tōrāh); sanhedrin 1588 (Heb. sanhedrin, which is from Greek sunédrion 'council'); Elohim 1605 (Heb. elohim); mishna, a collection of precepts, 1610 (Fitzherbert's Policy and Religion); gopher-(wood) and shittah (Heb. shittāh, a kind of tree), both in the Authorized Version of the Bible, 1611; midrash, a commentary, tallith, a robe (later, a scarf), both in Purchas his Pilgrimage, 1613. Nineteenth century: jaal-(goat), a wild goat, 1838; kosher 1851 (Mayhew, London Labour; Heb. kāshēr 'fit, proper'); oof 1885 (Sporting Times; Yiddish ooftisch, actually a German form, from Germ. auf dem tische 'on the table', i.e. cash); schnorrer, a Jewish beggar, 1892 (Zangwill, Children of the Ghetto; another Yiddish word).

(G) TIBETO-CHINESE

The Central and Eastern Asiatic languages of Tibet, Burma, and China are sometimes grouped together under one head,

though the character of their relationship is doubtful. Two Tibetan words are fairly familiar in English, one from the seventeenth and one from the eighteenth century. (The first two European explorers known to have reached Lhasa were Johann Grueber and Albert D'Orville, who travelled from Peking to Nepal by way of Lhasa in 1661; an earlier traveller, Friar Oderic, is reputed to have penetrated to Tibet not long after the time of Marco Polo (thirteenth century), but this remains doubtful.) The word lama (Tibetan blama) is used in an English translation of Martini's Conquest of China in 1654; Dalai-lama in 1698. yak (from Tibetan gyak) is recorded first in 1799, by Samuel Turner, who was sent by Warren Hastings to visit the Tashi-Lama, 1783-4.

Chinese words are more numerous, though only a few have been thoroughly naturalized, the best known being tea, ketchup, japan, and the names of several varieties of tea, such as pekoe, souchong. A number of Chinese words have reached English through Japanese; these will be given in the next section.

The earliest known Chinese word in English is silk (through Latin and Greek, from an early name of the Chinese; see p. 273). Middle English has galingale, an aromatic root (eleventh century in the form gallengar, next c. 1305 as galingale); this is Old French, from Arab, khalanjān, through Persian from Chinese Ko-liang-kiang 'mild ginger from Ko'. The early modern English loan-words from Chinese are mostly known first through translations of foreign works. For instance, Parke's translation of Mendoza's History of China (1588) first records li, a measure of length, and litchi (Ch. li-chi): They have a kinde of plummes that they doo call Lechias. Martini's Conquest of China, in an English translation of 1654, has ginseng: The root cal'd Gimsem, so much esteemed amongst the Chineses. Phillips's translation of Linschoten records in 1598 the word chaa, the Portuguese form of Chinese (Mandarin) ch'a 'tea': the aforesaid warme water is made with the powder of a certain hearbe called Chaa.

But from the seventeenth century onwards Chinese words are also introduced by English travellers and traders; R. Cocks's *Diary*, 1620, speaks of 'a China sampan', but as used by 'Hollanders'; japan, a kind of varnish, from the Chinese name

of the country of Japan, Jih-pun = sunrise, appears in 1688; bohea (Ch. Wu-i, the name of some hills in the north of Fuhkien) in Cunningham's Voyage to Chusan, 1701. Meanwhile, the English had learned to drink tea; they took the word tee or tay from the Dutch, through whose East Indian trade the herb was brought to this country about 1650-5; Dutch thee is from the Amoy dialect of Chinese: t'e (cf. the Mandarin dialect form ch'a, above); already in 1658 tea is advertised in the Mercurius Politicus: That excellent . . . drink called by the Chineans tcha, by other Nations Tay alias Tee.

Lockver's Account of the Trade with India, 1711, has the Chinese words pongee, a kind of silk (apparently from North Chinese pun-chī = own loom); sycee, uncoined silver (Ch. sí szě = fine silk); ketchup (Ch. kĉechiap 'the brine of pickled fish '): the best Ketchup from Tonquin. The remaining eighteenth century loans, all but one, are connected with trade : pekoe (Amoy pek-ho), 1712, Addison, in the Spectator: Coffee, Chocolate, Green, Imperial, Peco, and Bohea-Tea seem to be trifles; congou (Ch. kung-fu) 1725, London Gazette: Next week will be sold, a large Parcel of Bohee, with som Congou and Green Tea; hong, a series of rooms used as a warehouse or factory (Cantonese hang 'row, rank'), 1726, Shelvocke's Voyage round the World; kaolin, a kind of clay used for porcelain (Ch. kaoling), 1727, in Chambers' Cyclopaedia; kaolin was first made known in Europe by d'Entrecolles in 1712; hyson (Ch. hsi-ch'un) 1740; souchong (through French from Ch. siao-chung) in the Annual Register 1760: The East-India ships . . . have brought 62,900 [lb.] of Southong; chin-chin, in Anglo-Chinese use (Ch. ts'ing-ts'ing), 1795, in Syme's Embassy to Ava: We soon fixed them in their seats, both parties . . . repeating Chin-Chin, Chin-Chin, the Chinese term of salutation.

The nineteenth century loans from China are a varied collection, but none indicate a close connexion with the country; they still include trading terms, together with words relating to Chinese customs, government, and art: kotow, kowtow (Ch. k'o-t'ou), 1804, in Barrow's Travels in China; whanghee, a cane (Ch. huang), 1815, Milburn's Oriental Commerce; loquat, a fruit (Ch. luh kwat), 1814; yamun, yamen, mandarin's office, or state department (Ch. ya 'official residence' + mun 'gate'), 1827,

Lloyd's Tinkowski's Travels; wampee, a fruit (Ch. hwang-pī), 1830, in Lindley's Natural System of Botany; oolong (Ch. wulung), 1852, McCulloch's Dictionary of Commerce; kylin, a fabulous animal represented on Chinese porcelain (Ch. ch'i-lin), 1857, in Marryat's Pottery and Porcelain; and finally one word adopted in the present century: tong, a Chinese secret society, 1918 (from Ch. t'ang, a hall, meeting-place).

(H) JAPAN

Words from Japanese (including Chinese loan-words in Japanese) are very few indeed until the nineteenth century, and as will be seen hardly any have been really anglicized. Trade with and travel in Japan seems to have lagged behind in comparison with the corresponding discoveries in Cathay and other parts of the Far East, though a few references in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth century translations of works of travel, and in such works written by Englishmen, show that even then a small number of Japanese words were being introduced into the language. The earliest seems to be bonze, adopted from the Portuguese (from Jap. bonzô, from Ch. fan-seng 'religious person') in 1588, in Parke's translation of Mendoza's History of China: They have amongst them [i.e. in Japan] many priests of their Idols whom they do call Bonsos of the which there be great couents. Four more words are found for the first time in the seventeenth century: shogun, the hereditary commanderin-chief of the Japanese army (Jap. shōgun, from Ch. chiang chiin), 1615, in Cocks's Diary; kimono 1637; saké, a liquor made from fermented rice, 1687, in Lovell's translation of Thevenot's Travels; soy (Jap. soy, colloquial pronunciation of shō-yu, from Ch. shi-yu) 1696, in Ovington's Voyage to Suratt: Souy the choicest of all Sauces; one in the eighteenth century: mikado 1727, in Scheuchzer's translation of Kaempfer's Japan.

Later loans are more numerous, but almost all still have an exclusively Japanese reference: obi, a sash, 1802; sen 1802 (Pinkerton's Modern Geography); ginkgo, a tree, 1808; daimio, a feudal noble, 1839, in the Penny Cyclopaedia (Jap. from Ch.); hara-kiri 1856 (Harper's Magazine); tycoon 1863 (Jap. taikun

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'great lord', from Ch.); samisen, a kind of guitar, 1864 (Jap. from Ch. san-hsien); jinricksha 1874 (Jap. jin-riki-sha); samurai 1874; yen 1875 (Jevon's Money; Jap. from Ch. yüan 'round', also 'dollar'); gobang, a game played on a chequerboard, 1886 (Guillemard, Cruise of the 'Marchesa'; Jap. goban, from Ch. k'i-pan' chess-board'): Some of the games are purely Japanese... as go-ban. Note: This game is the one lately introduced into England under the misspelt name of Go Bang; kakemono, a wall-picture, 1890 (Daily News); geisha 1891 (Sir Edwin Arnold in the Contemporary Review); jujutsu 1904.

CHAPTER XI

MALAY-POLYNESIAN AND AUSTRALIAN

(A) Malay-Polynesian

The hundreds of dialects of the islands of the Pacific Ocean may be divided into four large groups, Indonesian, Polynesian, Melanesian, and Micronesian. Of these the first two are represented in English by a not inconsiderable number of words. Indonesian includes the dialects of the Malay Peninsula, of Java, of Sumatra, of the Philippines, of Madagascar, etc., etc. The first of these make their appearance in English in the second half of the sixteenth century, some of them perhaps through Portuguese, at the same time, approximately, as the first words from India (there are no very early loans from this group, however, as there are in the case of the Indian dialects, e.g. in Old English). Some of the loan-words from Malay, etc., have become very, or comparatively, familiar, such as sago, bamboo, gong, gingham, cockatoo, launch, bantam, kapok, caddy (for tea), gutta percha, raffia. Even in this list it is obvious that words from these languages denote especially animals, birds, plants (and their products). The first Malay word to appear in English is sago (Mal. sāgū) 1555, in Eden's Decades of the Newe Worlde (in a reference to Molucca). Other sixteenth century loans are: kris. a Malay sword (Mal. k(i)rīs), 1577, Drake, in Hakluyt's Voyages; proa (Mal. $p(a)r\bar{a}\bar{u}$, a boat), 1582, in Lichefield's translation of Castañeda's Conquest of the East Indies; picul, a weight (Mal. pikul, a man's load), tael, a weight (Port. from Mal. tahil), durian, a kind of fruit (Mal., = thorn), all in Parke's translation of Mendoza's History of China, 1588; nipa, a kind of toddy obtained from a palm (Mal. nīpah, 1598, in Hickock's translation of Frederick's Voyages; bamboo (Mal. bambu, through Dutch bamboes), and mangosteen (Mal. mangustan) 1598, in Phillips's translation of Linschoten.

Seventeenth century words are still all from Malay; some are

direct borrowings, others through French, Portuguese, or Dutch: gong, earlier gongo (through Port. or Span. gongo, from Mal. gong) 1600; the instrument seems to have been adopted into English use in the early nineteenth century, cf. Scott in The Antiquary: I have had equally doubt concerning my dinner call; gongs, now in present use, seemed a new-fangled and heathenish invention; tombac, an alloy (Fr., from Mal. tambaga 'copper') 1602, Lancaster's Voyage to India, in Purchas; cassowary (Mal. kasuārī) 1611, in reference to a cassowary brought to England and kept in St. James's Park; St. James his Ginneyhens, the Cassawarway moreover (Note, an East Indian bird at St. James); junk, a ship (Fr. jonque, or Port. junco, from Mal. djong) 1613, Purchas; gingham (Fr. guingamp, Mal. ginggang = 'striped') 1615, in a letter quoted in Cocks's Diary: Capt. Cock is of opinion that the ginghams, both white and browne ... will prove a good commodity in the Kinge of Shashna his cuntry; paddy (Mal. $p\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$) 1623, State Papers, Colonial; sumpitan (Mal. sumpitan), cockatoo (Mal. kakatúa, through Du. kaketoe), both in Sir T. Herbert's Travels, 1634 (Cacatoes, birds like Parrats, fierce and indomitable); tincal, crude borax (Mal. tingkal) 1635; rattan, a kind of climbing palm, also a cane made of its stem (Mal. rotan), 1660, in Pepys's Diary: Mr. Hawley did give me a little black rattoon, painted and gilt; amuck, amok (Mal. āmuk 'rushing in frenzy to murder') 1663; catechu, an astringent obtained from Acacia catechu and other East Indian trees (Mal. kachu) 1683; lory (Mal. $l\bar{u}r\bar{i}$) 1692; babiroussa (Mal. $b\hat{a}bi$ 'hog'; rusa 'deer') 1696; launch (Mal. through Span. lancha) 1697; dammar, a resin (Mal. damar), 1698; orangoutang (Mal. \bar{o} rang \bar{u} tan = man of the woods) 1699.

The chief point about eighteenth century loans from Indonesian (all but two of which are from the second half of the century) is that we now find a few words from Malagasy, the dialect of Madagascar; the island had been discovered by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, but the words from Malagasy which come into English are apparently through French. a mammal allied to the hedgehog (Mlg. tandraka), 1729, in Drury's Madagascar; bantam 1749, apparently from a Place-Name in Java; kapok (Mal. kāpok) 1750; gecko, a lizard, 1774 (Mal. gekog); mangabey 1774, in Goldsmith's Natural History (the name of an African monkey, so called by Buffon, from the name of a district in Madagascar, though the animal is not found in the island); pangolin, the scaly ant-eater (Mal. peng-gōling = roller) 1774; aye-aye (Mlg., perhaps named from its cry) 1781, in Pennant's Quadrupeds; trepang (Mal. trīpang); upas (Mal. ūpas) 1783; tanghin, poison obtained from a shrub (Mlg. tangena), 1788, in a translation from the French of Sonnerat's Voyage); caddy 1792 (Mal. kati, a weight); muntjak, a deer (Mal. minchek), 1798.

During the nineteenth century there is a constant, if not large, drift of Indonesian words into English, now including words from dialects other than Malay and Malagasy; the majority of them are still names of animals and plants. (The first four words in this list are used first as English words by Sir Stamford Raffles, Lieutenant-Governor of Java, 1811-15.) Rasse, the civet-cat, 1817 (Jav. rasé); napu, the musk-deer (Malay), dugong (Mal. dūyong), 1820; siamang, a kind of ape, 1822 (Malay, siyāmang; Raffles in Trans. Linnaean Soc.: I have recently procured a living siamang, which is very tame and tractable); teledu 1824 (Jav.); rusa, deer, 1827 (Mal.); gambier 1830 (Mal. gambir, name of plant); sarong 1834 (Mal. sārung); manucode, bird of paradise, 1835 (from Buffon's French, from the Modern Latin manucodiata, from Mal. manuk dēwāta 'bird of the gods'); indri, the babacoote (in Mlg. the word means 'behold ': Sonnerat heard it from a native, and mistook it for the name of the animal), 1839, in the Penny Cyclopaedia; delundung, the weasel-cat, 1840 (Malay); gutta-percha (Mal. getah percha 'gum of the percha', name of tree, assimilated to Latin gutta 'drop') 1845, in the Athenaeum: the Secretary described the Substance called gutta-percha; parang 1852 (Mal.); ylang-ylang, a tree, 1876 (Philippine Is. īlang-ilang); babacoote, a kind of lemur, 1880, in Sibree's Great African Islands (Malagasy); raffia, raphia, a kind of palm, also the fibre of this (Mlg.) 1882, in Smith's Dictionary of Economic Plants; linsang, a kind of civet-cat (Jav.), 1885; ramie, a plant, 1888 (Mal. rāmī).

The Polynesian Islands include the most easterly and southerly groups of the central Pacific. Closely related dialects are found in the Tonga Islands, Samoa, Hawaii, the Marquesas, Easter Island, New Zealand, and others. Only a small number of words

have reached English from this source, nearly all being names of animals or plants, and only two or three have become at all common: taboo, tattoo, and perhaps ukulele. The first appear in English in the late eighteenth century, as the result of Captain Cook's explorations and discoveries between 1768 and 1779. Cook's first voyage in the Pacific was made in the Endeavour, 1768–1771, primarily for the purpose of observing the transit of Venus. At this time he visited both Australia and New Zealand. During the years 1772–3 he sailed to the Antarctic, and then, returning north, visited New Caledonia and the New Hebrides. His last voyage, 1776–9, during which he explored the northern Pacific and discovered the Sandwich Islands, ended in his death.

During these ten years, Cook used in his Journals the following Polynesian words: pa, pah, a Maori fort (Maori pà). taboo (Tongan tabu), tattoo (Polynesian tatau), kava, an intoxicating beverage; taro, a plant (Sandwich Is.); another word of this period is kaka, a New Zealand parrot, recorded by J. R. Forster in 1774. The remaining Polynesian words, chiefly of Maori origin, were all but one borrowed in the nineteenth century: kauri, a pine (Maori), 1823, in R. A. Cruise's Ten Months in New Zealand; tapa, cloth made from bark (Polynesian), 1823; tara, a kind of fern (Maori), 1834, in Ross's Van Diemen's Land; kiwi (Maori) 1835, W. Yate's Account of New Zealand; rata, a tree (Maori), 1835, also in Yate's book; kanaka (Hawaiian) 1840, in Dana's Before the Mast; poi, a dish made of tara-root (Hawaii), 1840; moa (Maori) 18421; kakapo, ground parrot of New Zealand (Maori), 1843; kea, a green parrot (Maori), 1862; tuatara, a lizard (Maori), 1890; ukulele (Hawaii) 1920.

(B) AUSTRALIAN

The continent of Australia had been discovered in the seventeenth century, and Dampier had touched there in 1688. But it was not until after the voyages of Captain Cook had brought it again to the attention of England that any European settlements were made there, and that any native words became known in English. The first colony, to which convicts were

¹ British colonization in New Zealand began in the early years of Queen Victoria's reign.

transported, was established at Port Jackson in 1788, and in the second decade of the nineteenth century the immigration of agricultural settlers began.

Apparently the first Australian word to be recorded is kangaroo, noted by Cook in 1770: The animals which I have before mentioned, called by the Natives Kangaroo or Kanguru. Four more words are recorded in the eighteenth century: dingo 1789 (Tench's Botany Bay); corroboree, a native dance, 1793. in J. Hunter's Port Jackson; waratah, a shrub, 1793, in J. E. Smith's Botany of New Holland; wombat, 1798, Flinders, Voyage in Terra Australis. Of eleven words borrowed in the nineteenth century, eight are names of birds, animals, or trees: koolah, koala. the Australian bear, 1808; boomerang, 1827, in Capt. King's book on the Survey of the Australian coasts: Boomerang is the Port Jackson term for this weapon, and may be retained for want of a more descriptive name; paramatta, a fabric (from a Place-Name), 1834, in J. D. Lang's State of New South Wales; myall, a native (Austr. mial 'wild') 1835, in Mitchell's Expedition to Eastern Australia; joey, a young kangaroo (Austr. joé), 1839, in W. H. Leigh, Voyage to South Australia; myall, a kind of acacia (Austr. maiāl), 1845; budgerigar (Austr., = good cockatoo) 1847; mallee, a kind of eucalvotus, 1848, in Westgarth, Australia Felix; warrigal, the dingo (Austr. warringin), 1852; jarrah, mahogany gum-tree, 1866; karri, one of the blue gums, 1870, Knight's West Australia.

CHAPTER XII

THE LANGUAGES OF AFRICA

Apart from European languages now spoken in Africa, the various dialects of this continent form many and highly diversified groups. In many parts of the north Semitic dialects (chiefly Arabic) are common; Hamitic dialects (Coptic—from earlier Egyptian—Berber, Libyan, Cushitic) are spoken in parts of the north and east. In the south there are the languages of the Hottentots, Pygmies, and Bushmen. In the huge territory occupied by African negroes there exist two great related languages, Bantu and Sudanese, each of which has several hundred varieties. Bantu is spoken to the south of the Equator (to give only an approximate boundary), Sudanese to the north. In many areas these dialects have been much affected by the influence of foreign languages, e.g. Arabic.

The earliest connexion of English with Africa is at a very early period, when a few words entered it, or its continental parent-language, from Egyptian by way of Greek and Latin. Old English (see p. 55) has the forms senep 'mustard', elpend 'elephant', carte 'paper', all of which are of Egyptian origin. Elpend was superseded in Middle English by elephant, the French form of the Latin word which Old English had borrowed; chart, another French form, again ultimately Egyptian, has replaced carte: O.E. senep is obsolete, but another O.E. word. $n\bar{z}p$ 'a root, turnip', which apparently also comes (through Latin) from Greek sināpis (from Egyptian) survives as the second element of turnip, parsnip. Ebon, ebony, representing Lat. hebenum (Gk. hebenon, from Egyptian, and related to elephant) appear in Late Middle English, the latter first in Wyclif, who also has another Egyptian word, ibis, which he borrowed from the Latin of the Vulgate. Turnip, earlier turnepe (the origin of the first syllable is obscure), appears first in 1533, in Elyot's Castell of Helthe: Turnepes beinge welle boyled in water, and after with fatte fleshe, norysheth moche. Unlike so many Eastern languages,

Egyptian has no contribution to make to English in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It is true that Purchas has the word oasis in 1613, but this is a 'learned' word in origin, having been borrowed by Latin from Greek, and by the latter from Egyptian (cf. Coptic ouah 'to dwell').

Recent loans from Egyptian have been archaeological terms, of which the best known are canopic (with a Latin ending), from the early Egyptian Place-Name Canopus, 1878, and ushabti, not until 1912.

It has already been pointed out (see Chapter IX) that the Portuguese had established trading-stations on the Guinea coast in the sixteenth century, and hither came Englishmen in the reign of Elizabeth to dispute the Portuguese monopoly of the West African trade. Until recent times, all the Sudanese words borrowed by English have been of West African origin, most of them apparently taken directly from the native dialects, though a few are through Portuguese or French. It was in this area of Africa, in spite of opposition, that English trade was established earliest and most strongly, the slave trade, apart from other ventures, proving a constant attraction to the Guinea coast for more than two hundred years. It is owing to the slave trade that a few African words have reached English by way of America and American-English (see below).

The earliest West African word in English appears to be yam, through Portuguese inhame, though its African origin is sometimes disputed; it is found first in 1588, in Hickock's translation of Frederick's Voyage to the East Indies, where it is spelt inany; the spelling yeam is used in 1657; banana (through Span., from the native name in Guinea) in 1597. In the seventeenth century we find three more words: pongo, a kind of ape, 1625, Battel in Purchas his Pilgrimes: This Pongo is... more like a Giant in stature, than a man: for he is very tall, and hath a mans face, hollow-eyes, with long have vpon his browes; drill, a kind of baboon, 1644; harmattan (through Fr. from W.Afr. haramata) 1671, in a section ('Of the Harmetans in Ginny') of R. Bohun's Wind; greegree, gregory, grigory, an African amulet, 1698.

The eighteenth century loans are also from the Sudanese dialects of West Africa: potto, a lemur, 1705; okra 1707, through

the West Indies; it appears first in Sloane's Jamaica; chimpanzee 1738: A most surprizing creature is brought over in the Speaker, just arrived from Carolina, that was taken in a wood at Guinea. She is the Female of the creature which the Angolans call Chimpanzee, or the Mockman; opah, a fish, 1750; obeah, obi, an amulet; sorcery, 1764; cola, kola, the seed, used for chewing, etc., of a West African tree, 1755, in Nicholas Owen's Journal; with some old bags of grass or cloath to hould the good man's tabaco or cola; shea (Mandingo si, se) 1797, in Park's Travels in Africa.

The first nineteenth century loan takes us back to a West African borrowing which far antedates any other in a European language. In the fifth and sixth century Hanno the Carthaginian visited the coast of Africa, and in the Greek account of his voyage the word gorillas (pl.) is alleged to be an African word. This was adopted as the specific name of the ape (Troglodytes gorilla) by Savage in 1847 (Journal of the Boston Natural History Society); it is found as an English word first in 1853: Description of Cranium of an adult male gorilla (R. Owen in Trans. Zool. Soc.). The name guereza, an Abyssinian monkey, is from an Eastern type of Sudanese (1859, in Wood's Natural History). Gumbo (Angolan ki-ngombo) appears first in America Voodoo, first found in 1880, is probably from (1859).Dahomey vodu.

The influence of Bantu on the English vocabulary is almost negligible until the nineteenth century. Three words (one of them doubtful) are found before 1800: zebra 1600 (from a Congo dialect, probably through Port.), in Pory's translation of Leo's Africa: The zebra or zabra of this countrey [Congo] being about the bignes of a mule, is a beast of incomparable swiftnes: possibly baobab 1640 (in a botanical work); kudu, koodoo, 1777, in G. Forster's Voyage round the World.

The next Bantu word is not found until 1847, and then in the West Indies, whither it was carried from Africa in 1827; this is dengue, the name of a type of fever, from a Swahili word meaning 'sudden cramp', but through Spanish. Inyala, an antelope, is found in 1848 (Proc. Zool. Soc.), tsetse (Bechuana) in 1849 (E. E. Napier's Excursions in South Africa). Then we have a few words from the Zulu dialect, two of which have special reference to the

Zulu War: induna, an officer under the king of a tribe, 1875, in Oates, Matabele Land; donga, a ravine, 1879, in the Daily News; impi 1879, in the Daily Telegraph, 16th May: A Zulu impi... managed to cut off the chief's cattle; indaba, a conference, 1894, in the Pall-Mall Gazette, 26th Dec.: A message was therefore conveyed... to the King, inviting Umtassa to come in to an indaba at Umtali. One word from the Congo dialect dates from the beginning of the present century: okapi, first recorded in 1900.

Finally, we have a few words from the Hottentot language, all of which appear first in books of travel, four of the eighteenth, one of the nineteenth century: kaross, rug or mantle of skin, 1731, in Medley's translation of Kolben's Cape of Good Hope; gnu 1777, G. Forster's Voyage round the World (gnoo); quagga 1785, Forster's translation of Sparrman's Voyage to the Cape: One of the animals called quaggas by the Hottentots and colonists; karoo 1789; kaama, the hartebeest, 1824, in Burchell's Travels.

CHAPTER XIII

FROM THE NEW WORLD

The journeys and discoveries of Columbus in 1492 and of Cabot in 1497 opened the way for a new source of supply for the English vocabulary as well as for English markets. Something has already been said (see Chapter X) of the Spanish explorations across the Atlantic and of their settlements on the American coasts, as well as of the English traders and explorers who followed the Spanish trade routes, and, in spite of vigorous opposition, themselves engaged in trade with the native inhabitants of the Americas. A few American words which reached us through Spanish have been given in Chapter X, but a more complete list must be given here.

The Indian dialects of America number many hundreds, and their inter-relations are still a matter of much speculation. They will be divided here, somewhat arbitrarily, into two groups:

(A) South and Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies, and (B) North America. There is, however, a historical justification for this division, since words borrowed from the (A) group, especially in the earlier periods, most commonly enter English through Spanish or Portuguese; while those from the (B) group come directly from North American Indian; the latter are all subsequent to the re-establishment of the colony of Virginia in 1607 (Raleigh's colony was founded here in 1587), while the former have already begun to enter English in the middle of the sixteenth century.

(A) SOUTH AMERICA, ETC.

The chief dialects of South America to be represented in English are the Quichua dialect, from Peru, which reached considerable importance under the empire of the Incas, and spread over a considerable area in the North-West and South America; the Guarani dialect of parts of Paraguay and the Argentine

which likewise extended far beyond its original territory, and in the sixteenth century was spoken, sometimes together with a local dialect, over much of Brazil; Mexican dialects; and the Carib dialects (originally from the mainland of South America) of the southern West Indies.

The first American Indian word to appear in English is guaiacum, a Latinized form of Spanish guayaco, from Haitian; this is found in an English translation (1533) of a medical work. Then we have a batch of eleven words, all but one from the West Indies. recorded in Richard Eden's Decades of the Newe Worlde, a translation of a work by Peter Martyr. The first we shall mention is Mexican: cacao (for the later cocoa, see 1707), the Span. form from Mex. caca-uatl = caca-tree: In the steade [of money | the halfe shelles of almonds, whiche kynde of Barbarous money they [the Mexicans] caule cacao or cacauquate; the others cacique, a native chief (Span. from Haitian); canoe (in Eden canoa, from Span. from Hait.); cassava (Hait., perhaps through French); hammock (Span. hamaca, from Carib.): their hangynge beddes whiche they caule Hamacas (cf. Raleigh's Discovery of Guiana: They lay each of them in a cotten Hamaca, which we call brasill beds); hurricane, the present form, but many variants occur in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; Spanish seems to have had both huracan and furacan; the word is originally Carib; Eden uses Furacan where Peter Martyr has this form, but when translating Oviedo in the same work he gives two forms: Great tempestes which they caule Furacanas or Haurachanas . . . ouerthrowe many howses and great trees; iguana (Carib. iwana, through Span.): Foure footed beastes . . . named Iuanas, muche lyke vnto Crocodiles, of eyght foote length, of moste pleasaunte taste; maguey, the American aloe (Span., from Hait.); manatee (Span., from Carib. manattoui): A yonge fyshe of the kynde of those huge monsters of the sea whiche thinhabitours caule Manati; savannah, earlier zavana (Span., probably from Carib.); yucca (Span., from Carib.).

A word now obsolete is sapota, an evergreen tree (Span. zapota from Mex. zapotl) c. 1560 (Tomson, in Hakluyt), but its diminutive, sapodilla, will be found later under 1697. The next word is an important one: potato (from Span. patata, from Hait. batata; the Haitian form is also found in English, first

in 1577); this appears first, with reference to the sweet potato, in Hawkins's Voyage to Florida, 1565: These potatoes be the most delicate rootes that may be eaten, and doe far exceede our passeneps or carets. The usual modern potato, Solanum tuberosum, which is a native of western South America, was introduced into Spain from Quito soon after 1580, and it gradually became familiar in other parts of Europe; the first reference to it in English is in Gerard's Herbal, 1597; Gerard, however, refers it to Virginia, where it is not indigenous. Sparke's Sir John Hawkins' Second Voyage (in Hakluyt) gives us the Cuban word maize (Span. maiz, from Cuban): Mayis maketh good sauory bread. The first Brazilian words are found in 1568, in Hacket's translation of Thevet's New-found World: manioc, earlier manihot (the latter perhaps a French spelling; Braz. mandioca): The Americanes make meale of those rootes that are caled Manihot; toucan (Port. tucano, from Braz. tucana). In Hawkes's Travels (Hakluyt) we find the tree-name mammee 1572 (Span. mamey, from Hait.).

Frampton's Joyfull News from the Newe Founde Worlde (1577) has several new words: cayman (Span., from Carib.); copal, a kind of resin (Mex. copalli 'incense'): They doe bryng from the Newe Spaine twoo kindes of Rosine . . . the one is called Copall; petun, a kind of tobacco, now obsolete, except as surviving in the plant-name petunia (Braz. pety, through French petun); tacamahac, a resin (Span. from Aztec tecomahiyac); and finally tobacco (Span. tabaco, from Hait., where it was perhaps used originally of a tube or pipe): This hearbe which commonly is called Tabaco, is an Hearbe of muche antiquitie, and knowne amongest the Indians; cf., eleven years later, William Harrison in his Chronologie: In these daies the taking-in of the smoke of the Indian herbe called Tabaco, by an instrument formed like a litle ladell, whereby it passeth from the mouth into the hed & stomach, is gretlie taken-vp & vsed in England.

Two more words conclude the sixteenth century list: teocalli. a Mexican temple (Mex. teocalli), 1578; papaw, pawpaw (Carib., perhaps through Span. papayo), 1598, in Phillips's translation of Linschoten: There is also a fruite that came out of the Spanish Indies, brought . . . to Malacca, and from thence to India, it is called Papaios, and is very like a Mellon, as bigge as a man's fist.

Peruvian (Quichuan) words appear first in the seventeenth

century; these, like other South American words, are nearly all names of animals, birds, plants, and their products. Many of them appear in translations of Spanish or Portuguese works, but others are recorded in the accounts of the voyages of English sailors (often as given by Hakluyt or Purchas). Llama 1600 (Span. from Peruvian): An Indian boy driving 8 Llamas or sheepe of Peru which are as big as asses (Hakluyt); quipu, one of the knotted cords used by the Peruvians to convey messages, 1604 (Quichuan): viscacha, a rodent (Span, from Quichuan uiscacha), 1604, in E. Grimstone's translation of D'Acosta's History of the Indies: the following six words are from the same work: guanaco (Span. from Peruv. huanaco), guano (Span. from Peruv. huano), condor (Span. from Peruv. cuntur), chocolate (Span. from Mex. chocolatl), jaguar (Braz. yaguara, jaguara): They ascribe power to another starre, which they called Chuquinchincay (which is as much as iaguar), over tigres, beares, and lyons; tomato (Span. tomata from Mex. tomatl): There was also Indian pepper, beetes, Tomates, which is a great sappy and savourie graine. Piragua (Span. from Carib. piragua 'dugout') 1609, in Virginia Richly Valued: A piragua or ferrie bote; buccan, a wooden frame for roasting meat (Braz.), 1611, in E. Aston's translation of Lery's History of America; this word is now obsolete in English, but the agent-noun buccaneer (a French formation from buccan) is still current; it meant first a hunter, later a pirate: Not able . . . to root out a few Buckaneers or Hunting French-men, Hickeringill, Jamaica, 1661. Puna, a table-land (Peruv.), ananas (Peruv. nanas), tanager (Braz. tangara), tamandua, ant-eater (Braz.), 1613-14, in Purchas his Pilgrimage. Coca (Span. coca from Peruv. cuca) 1616, in Bullokar: an hearbe of India, the leaves whereof being bruised and mixt with the powder of Cockles or Oysters in their shelles burnt the Indians use in little balles to carry in their mouthes to preserve them from famine and great dryth; from this comes cocaine, first recorded in 1874. Vicuna (Span. vicuña from Peruv.), 1622, in R. Hawkins, Voyage into the South Sea; paca (Tupi) 1657; hoatzin, a bird, 1661; chilli (Mex.) 1662, in H. Stubbe's The Indian Nectar, A Treatise on Chocolata; roucou, a tree whence a dye is obtained (Fr. from Braz. urucu), 1666, in J. Davies's translation of Rochefort's Caribby Isles; urubu, a vulture, 1672, in

Willoughby's Ornithology; jalap, a drug, 1675 (Fr. from Span. jalape, from the Mex. Place-Name Xalapan); coati (Tupi) 1676; ipecacuanha (Port., from Braz. ipe-kaa-guéne) 1682, J. Pechey: Some Observations made upon the Brasilian Root. called Ipepocoanha; anatto, a Central American dye, 1682, Sir William Petty: Arnotto dyeth of itself an orange colour; curassow, from the name of the island of Curação (see this again in 1813) 1685, in L. Wafer's Voyage: The Corrosou is a large black land-bird, heavy and big as a turkey-hen; saki 1687 (Braz. cahi); calipash, the upper shell of the turtle (Span. carapacho, probably from Carib.; cf. carapace 1836, from Mod. French) 1689; chigoe (Carib.) 1691, the form jigger in 1781; sapodilla, an evergreen tree (Span. diminutive of zapota, q.v. under 1560), 1697, in Dampier's Voyages: Where there grow great Groves of Sapadillies which is a Sort of Fruit much like a pear; avocado 1697; barbecue 1697; sapajou, a monkey (Fr., perhaps from Cayenne), 1698. South American and West Indian words of the earlier

South American and West Indian words of the earlier eighteenth century are for the most part recorded first in books of travel and descriptions of the countries of the West, but towards the end of the century we find a number of them in scientific works on natural history, etc., or in works of more general instruction, such as Chambers' Cyclopaedia; Goldsmith's Natural History is responsible for a fairly large group.

Cashew (Fr. acajou, from Port. from Braz. acajoba) 1703, in Dampier's Voyages (III): The Cashew is a Fruit as big as a Pippin, pretty long, and bigger near the Stemb than at the other end; the French form acajou is also used in English, first in Bradley's Family Dictionary, 1725; pampa, usually in plural, pampas (Span. from Peruv. bamba 'steppe') 1704; maqui, a shrub of Chile, 1704; charqui, dried flesh (Span. from Peruv.), 1706; there is also a Spanish verb charquear, which is anglicized as jerk, first found in 1707; tapioca, meal prepared from the root of the cassava (Port. from Braz. tipioca), 1707, in Sloane's Voyage to Jamaica: The juice evaporated over the fire gives the Tipioca meal; cf. Capt. John Smith in his Map of Virginia, 1612: The Chiefe roote they have for foode is called Tockawhoughe... Raw it is no better than poison, and being roasted except it be tender... it will prickle and torment the throat extreamly; cocoa (cf. the earlier cacao, q.v. under 1555; eighteenth century also

cacoa, cocao) 1707, in Funnell's Voyages: The Nut [of Theobroma cacao] or kernel . . . ripens in a great Husk, wherein are sometimes 30. nav 40 cocoas. These cocoas are made use of to make chocolate; for the powder, cf. Burns's Letters, 1788: I executed your commission in Glasgow, and I hope the cocoa came safe; copaiba, a balsam (Span. from Braz. cupauba), 1712, in E. Cooke's Voyage to the South Sea; mate (Span. from Braz. mati 'vessel made of calabash', used for infusing the leaves of the plant known as yerba mate) 1717; applied to the shrub itself, 1758; nopal (Span. nopal from Mex. nopalli) 1730; agouti (Fr., from Span. aguti, perhaps from Carib.) 1731; colibri (Carib.); guan, a gallinaceous bird, 1743, in G. Edwards, Natural History; poncho (Span. from Araucanian) 1748; perai, a fish (Tupi piraya), jacaranda, a tree (Braz.), jacana, an aquatic bird (Port. jaçaná from Braz. jasaná), in Chambers' Cyclopaedia, Supplement, 1753; cayenne, earlier cayan (Braz. kyýnha, assimilated to the Place-Name) 1756, in P. Browne's Jamaica; paramo, corozo, 1760; woorali, a poison, 1769, in E. Bancroft's Essay on the Natural History of Guiana.

The next seven words are from Goldsmith's Natural History: jabiru, a wading-bird (Braz. jabirú); cougar (Fr. couguar (Buffon) ultimately from Braz. guaçu ara: There is an animal of America, which is usually called the Red tiger, but Mr. Buffon calls it the Cougar), tapir (Braz. tapira), ocelot (French (Buffon) from Mex. tlalocelotl = tlalli 'field' + ocelotl 'jaguar'; The catamountain which is the Ocelot of Mr. Buffon), coaita, the red-faced spider-monkey (Braz.), cabiai (Braz., later cavy, 1796), capybara (Braz.).

Caoutchouc 1775 (Fr., from Carib. cahuchu); tafia, liquor obtained from molasses (probably Carib.), 1777, in the Historical Collections of Illinois; puma (Peruv.), curare (Carib. wurari, wurali, see woorali above), both in Robertson's History of America, 1777; tamarin (Fr., perhaps from Carib.), margay (Fr., from Braz. mbaracaia), Smellie's translation of Buffon, 1780-1; tinamou (Fr. from Galibi tinamu), 1783, in Latham's Synopsis of Birds; axolotl, a reptile (Aztec), 1786, in Rees's Encyclopaedia (A singular fish found in the lake of Mexico); angostura (from a place of this name in Venezuela, now Ciudad Bolivar) 1791, A. Brande, Experiments & Observations on the

Angustura Bark; coypu 1793, in Pennant's History of Quadrupeds; pitpan, a boat (Central America), 1798.

Twentieth century loan-words are rather fewer, but their character remains much the same: rhatany (Mod. Lat. Rhatania. from Port. from Quichuan rataña) 1808, in Reece's Dictionary of Domestic Medicine: curação, curação (the name of an island in the Caribbean Sea), a liqueur, 1813, Moore, Postbag: And it pleased me to think at a house that you know / Were such good mutton cutlets and strong curaçoa; agama, a lizard (Carib.), 1817, in Blackwood's Magazine; jacamar, a bird (Braz. jacama-ciri), 1825, Waterton's Wanderings in South America; quinine (Fr., from Span. from Peruv. kina 'bark') 1826 (first introduced into medical practice in 1820); mescal (Span., from Mex. mexcalli), 1828, in Sir H. G. Ward's Mexico; coumarin (French coumarine, from Guiana cumaru 'tonka bean '), 1830, in Lindley's Natural System of Botany; araucaria (from Arauco, the name of a province in the south of Chile) 1833, in the Penny Cyclopaedia; guarana, a shrub (Braz.) 1838; sisal (grass) 1843 (Place-Name in Yucatan); divi-divi, a tree (Carib.), 1843, in the Pharmaceutical Journal; coyote 1850 (Span. from Mex. coyotl); mesquite (Span. from Mex.) 1851, in Mayne Reid's Scalp Hunters; pinole, meal made from parched corn-flour (Span. pinole, from Aztec pinolli) 1853; cacoon, a bean (perhaps Carib.), 1854, in Simmonds, Commercial Products of the Vegetable Kingdom; tamal (Mex.) 1856, in Olmsted's Texas); henequen (Span. jeniquen) 1880; istle (Mex. ixtli) 1883, in Cassell's Family Magazine; pudu (Chile) 1886.

(B) NORTH AMERICAN

It has been remarked earlier in this chapter that the first introduction of loan-words from North American Indian dialects followed the refounding of the colony of Virginia in 1607. The first borrowings are indeed from the dialects of this area, though later settlements (by 1640 it is estimated that there were 25,000 English settlers in New England) brought the English language into contact with the dialects of tribes farther north. It will be observed that words from Canadian Indian fail to appear until the last quarter of the eighteenth century, after the conquest of Canada in 1759.

Seventeenth century: racoon (Powhatan dialect of Virginia) 1608, in Capt. Smith's True Relation (in the form Rahaugcums); opossum (Virginian) 1610, in the True Declaration of the Colony of Virginia: There are Arocouns, and Apossouns, in shape like to pigges, shrowded in hollow roots of trees. In Capt. Smith's Man of Virginia, 1612, we find: persimmon (Powhatan): the fruit like medlers; they call Putchamins, they cast uppon hurdles on a mat, and preserve them as Pruines; puccoon (Powhatan); moccasin (Powhatan mockasin); terrapin, earlier terape (Algonquin terape), 1613, in A. Whitaker's Good Newes from Virginia; in Purchas his Pilgrimage, 1613: sagamore (Penobscot sagamo = sachem in other dialects; He observed a feast made by Anadabijou, the great Sagamo, in his Cabin), moose (Narragansett moos; Captaine Thomas Hanham sayled to the River of Sagadahoe 1606. He relateth of their beasts . . . redde Deare, and a beast bigger, called the Mus). Sachem, the head of a tribe (Narragansett) 1622, Relation of the Plantation in Plymouth, New England; musquash, earlier mussascus (Abnaki muskwessu; the early form perhaps from Powhatan), 1624, in Capt. Smith's Virginia: A Mussascus is a beast of the forme and nature of our water Rats; pow-wow (Algonquin) 1624, of an Indian medicine-man, in 1812 of a conference; wigwam (Ojibwa wigwaun) 1628, in Levett's Voyage to New England: We built us our wigwam or house, in one hour's space; hominy (the exact form or dialect of the original is doubtful) 1629, in John Smith's Continuation of the History of Virginia: Their servants commonly feed upon Homini, which is bruized Indian corne pounded, and boiled thicke, and milke for the sauce; wampum, earlier wampumpeag (Algonquin *wampampiak) 1631. The next four are from W. Wood's New Englands Prospects 1634: squaw (Algonquin squa, squaws; tomahawk (Algonquin tämähāk): They beate them downe with their right hand Tamahaukes, and left hand Iavelins; skunk (Indian segankw, etc.): The beasts of offence be Squunckes, Ferrets, Foxes; papoose (Algonquin): This little Pappouse travells about with his bare footed mother to paddle in the Icie Clammbankes. Tautog (Narragansett taut-auog) 1643, in Roger Williams's Key to the Language of America; manitou (Algonquin manito) 1671; hickory 1676 (Virginian pohickery); woodchuck 1689 (Cree wuchak, assimilated to wood).

Eighteenth century: sora, the Carolina rail (? Virginia), 1705, in R. Beverly's Virginia; catalpa (Carolina Indian; the tree was discovered by Catesby in 1726, 1726, in Catesby's Natural History of Florida; totem 1760 (Ojibwa); way-way, wav(e)y, the wild goose, (Cree wehweh) 1768; pecan (Algonquin) 1773, in P. Kennedy's Journal in Hutchins's Description of Virginia: caribou (Canadian French from Indian) 1774, in Goldsmith's Natural History; succotash (Narragansett msiguatash) 1778, in Carver's Travels in North America; menhaden 1792 (Narragansett munnawhatteaûg); quahaug, a clam, 1794 (Algonquin poquauhock). The next three from Morse's American Geography, 1796: maskinonge, a kind of pike (Ojibwa); pekan, animal like a weasel (Canadian Fr., from Algonquin); kinkajou, an animal allied to the racoon (cf. Algonquin kwingwaage 'wolverine'; Buffon transferred the name). Kinnikinic, a mixture used in place of tobacco. 1799 (Algonquin = mixture).

Nineteenth century: pemmican (Cree pimecan) 1801, Sir A. Mackenzie, Voyage up the St. Lawrence; wapiti (Cree wapitik) 1817; toboggan (French tabaganne (1691) from Canadian Indian) 1829; G. Head's Forest Scenes of North America (tobogin); mugwump (slang) 1832 (Natick mugquomp 'great chief'); tamarack, the American larch (Canadian Indian), 1841, in Fenimore Cooper's Deerslayer; chipmunk (probably Indian) 1842; catawba (grape) 1857 (from a river-name); tepee (Sioux tī-pī 'tent, house') 1872, in W. F. Butler's Great Lone Land; choctaw, step in skating, (from the name of an Indian tribe) 1892; apache (French, from the name of an Indian tribe) 1902.

(C) Eskimo

This is a very small section, which cannot, however, be included under American Indian, since the Eskimo dialects appear to belong to an entirely different family. The first word is of doubtful origin, but it may be from Eskimo: tarrock, the Arctic tern, 1674. The other three are genuine Eskimo, all of the eighteenth or nineteenth century: kayak 1757; umiak, comiak 1769; igloo 1856 (The hut or igloë... was a single rude elliptical apartment, Kane).

CHAPTER XIV

LATER LOAN-WORDS FROM LATIN AND GREEK

(A) LATIN

The wealth of Latin and Greek words gradually absorbed into English since the beginning of the Middle English period is of more importance from a cultural than from a historical point of view. They do not illustrate, as do most of the words which we have dealt with hitherto, the constant increase in English relations with other countries and languages, and the formation of new contacts, although they do indicate the continuous importance of Latin culture and literature in England especially under the influence of the Classical Renaissance. They are discussed here, therefore, only in outline, merely to illustrate the types of words borrowed in the Middle and Modern English periods and their usual methods of adoption and treatment.

The Latin loan-words which were included in an earlier chapter, at least those of the first two periods, were adopted directly into the spoken language from Latin-speaking people. But for two hundred years or more before the Norman Conquest the influence of the Latin of Classical literature and the Latin of religion and learning had been felt in English writing, and to some extent at least in English speech. During Middle English this process goes on.1 The Latin forms borrowed in earlier Middle English are, as in Late Old English, usually of a technical character, very often terms of religion (e.g. credo, Lambeth Homs.; paske 'Easter', Trin. Homs.; benedicite, confiteor, dirige (later dirge), ipocrisis, Ancr. Riwle), and this holds good of some at least of the later Middle English borrowings from Latin, many, though not all, of which still survive. We find, for instance, further ecclesiastical terms, such as requiem, gloria, limbo, magnificat, pater(noster), eremite, lector, lateran, collect, quinquagesima, diocese, bull,

 $^{^{1}}$ See especially O. Dellit, Ueber lateinische Elemente im Mittelenglischen Marburg, 1906.

mediator, redemptor, salvator, sanctum, besides names of the books of the Bible and other words taken from the Vulgate: Genesis, Exodus (both ultimately Greek), psalm, apocalipse, alleluia, magi, sabbat.

Another source of Latin words in M.E. was the study and practice of the law, whence came such terms as client, arbitrator, conviction, debenture, defalcation, emolument, equivalent, exorbitant, extravagant, executor, gratis, hereditament, imprimis, implement, legitimate, memorandum, mittimus, pauper, persecutor, proviso, and many others, besides more exclusively legal words and phrases such as alias, dedimus, habeas corpus, subpæna, prima facie. All these appear before 1500, and many before 1400.

Terms of the schools and of writing are also common: abecedary (Lat. abecedarius), abacus, allegory, et cetera, cause, contradictory, desk, ergo, explicit, finis, formal, incipit, index, item, library, memento, major, minor, neuter, scribe, simile, videlicet. Scientific terms form a large group. (A) Medicine: diaphragm, digit, orbit, hepatic, dislocate, fomentation, ligament, recipe, saliva. (B) Alchemy, including several which are now obsolete, or have changed their meaning: dissolve, ether, gypsus, mercury, sal effronium, acuate, aggravate (adj.), calcine, commixt, concatenate (adj.), contumulate, concrete, distillation, elixir, essence, fermentation, fixation, immaterial, liquable, obscuration. Astronomy (many of them found first in Chaucer): ascension, comet, conspect, dial, eccentric, equal, equator, equinoxium, equinoxial, hesperus, intercept, retrograde. (D) Botany: cardamom, gladiol, juniper, lupin, pine. (E) Zoology: asp, cicade, locust, (F) Mineralogy: adamant, chalcedony, chrysoberyl, jacinct, onyx, lapidary.

But there are in addition to words of this kind some hundreds of words adopted from Latin in Middle English, which cannot be grouped under any special technical category. Many of them are abstract terms, and they may be noun, adjective, or verb:—Nouns: adoption, aliment, collision, collocution, colony, commissary, concussion, conductor, conflict, depression, exclamation, expedition, impediment, implication; Adjectives: aggregate, alienate, communicative, compact, complete, confederate, determinate, effeminate, imaginary, immortal, incorporate, infirm. Verbs: accede, adjure, admit, combine, commend, commit, conclude, confide,

discuss, dissent, distend, exclude, expend, immix, import, infect, interest, etc., etc.

It happened fairly often that the form which a French word had taken in its development from Latin remained close enough to the Latin to make it sometimes difficult to know whether a Late Middle English loan-word is from French or direct from Latin; as, for instance, in the following words: exemption, execution, dissimulation, distant, dispense, discipline, contrite, contract (n.), compress (vb.), exhale, expectant, impression. Often, also, a word which was adopted from Old French is, either in Middle English or later, reborrowed from Latin, or at least refashioned on the model of Latin, either in pronunciation or spelling or both, e.g. adventure (earlier aventure), adorn (earlier aorn), confirm (earlier conferm), debt (earlier dette), or this may happen in French itself, and the French word be reborrowed (e.g. captive, earlier caitiff; though the English word in this and other cases may be directly from Latin). The matter is further complicated by the fact that in the adoption of words from Latin the common Latin suffixes are replaced in English by the suffixes common in French loanwords of similar derivation. For instance, O.Fr. -ie represents the Latin suffix -ia, and it is found in many English words from Old French, such as envy, villarny; hence Lat. custodia, familia, colonia, were anglicized as custodie, familie, colonie (now -y). The same ending (now -y) was used in English for Latin nouns and adjectives in -ius, -ium: mercury, contradictory, dimissory itinerary, corollary. Similarly the Latin noun stems in -tion, -sion. appear in M.E. as -tioun (-cioun), -sioun (the French form of the ending), though during the fifteenth century they are gradually replaced by -tion, etc., with approximation to the Latin spelling. Thus we have M.E. inflacioun (inflation), elevacioun, cognycyoun, attencioun, diffusioun. So also in the French suffixes -our, -te (later -or, -ty) for the Latin -\(\bar{o}r(em)\), -tas (-t\(\bar{a}tem)\): pastour, mediatour, rectour, captivite, actualyte, infelicitee, etc., etc.

Sometimes, however, an Old French form has deviated so far from its parent Latin that there can be no doubt as to which is the immediate source of the corresponding English word. Often, in fact, English has two forms (doublets), one from French the other directly from the Latin form which also produced

the French, though the Latin type may have been borrowed considerably after Middle English. Some examples of this (with the dates of the earliest recorded use of the Latin loan) are: count—compute 1631; ray—radius 1597; purvey—provide (L.M.E.); spice-species 1551; sure-secure 1533; treasontradition (L.M.E.); strait—strict 1578; respite—respect (L.M.E.); poor—pauper 1516; garner—granary 1570.

Many Latin suffixes, including those already referred to, are generalized in English, and may be used with Latin stems other than those with which they were used in classical Latin, or even with English stems. We may mention the very common nounsuffixes -ment (e.g. argument, pigment, segment, sediment; and with non-Latin stem, acknowledgment, oddment), -tion (e.g. oration, conversation, definition, elocution; cf. starvation, with an English stem); the adjectival suffixes -ose and -ous (the latter primarily a French suffix, but used with Latin stems), from Lat. -ōs- (famous, callous, copious, religious, victorious, nervous, jocose, morose. verbose. all of which had -osus in Latin; arduous, spurious, various, industrious, dubious, remodelled in English from Latin adjectives in -us); -al (fatal, floral, moral, plural, capital); -ary (ordinary, necessary, temporary, literary); -ate (delicate, fortunate, laureate; these were once much more common than they are now, large numbers having been formed from Latin participles in -ātus, e.g. obstinate, desperate, but many are now obsolete, or have been replaced by forms in -ated, the English past participles of verbs also formed from the Latin participles; cf. now obsolete adjectives such as alienate, conflate, contaminate, expiate); -ant, -ent (e.g. arrogant, different, crescent, important, provident, fluent); -able, -ible (durable, admirable, miserable; credible, horrible). In Latin, verbal adjectives from verbs of the first conjugation were formed with -ābilis, from verbs of other conjugations with This relation is sometimes lost in English, and new formations with -able are sometimes made from English verbs adopted from Latin verbs of the second, third, or fourth conjugation, e.g. dependable, movable. This suffix is the most used now of all the Latin adjectival suffixes, and a number of adjectives have been made with it from English or French nouns as well as verbs, e.g. laughable, workable, comfortable, fashionable, sizable, peaceable, likable, eatable, and even un-get-at-able.

In verbs from Latin the commonest ending is -ate, the English forms being derived largely from the passive participle (in -ātus) of Latin verbs of the first conjugation, e.g. alienate, associate, exaggerate, accumulate, frustrate, hibernate, liberate, radiate, ventilate, etc. Many of these, as has been indicated above, were adopted first as adjectives. English verbs formed from the perfect participle of other conjugations have no specific ending, e.g. act, collapse, correct, conflict, confuse, exempt, incense. Many other verbs are formed from Latin present stems, e.g. conjure, dispute, deter, defer, interfere, disturb, etc., and sometimes we have two verbs, one from the Latin present, the other from the participle, e.g. conduce—conduct, convince—convict, repel—repulse, etc. Another participial form which sometimes appears in English is that of the future passive participle or gerundive in -and-, -end-, in such words as dividend, legend, reverend, agenda, memorandum, etc.

So far we have dealt chiefly with English words which can be grouped under special suffixes, but there are, of course, very many Latin words which have been adopted in English with no special formative or derivative suffix. They often have exactly the same form in English as in Latin, so far as the spelling goes—their pronunciation in English following the spelling, each letter being given the value it usually has in modern English (e.g. creator, ibex), or in the case of early loan-words the Latin sounds having shared the development of the native English ones, as in the case of other foreign words.

Latin nouns, adjectives, and pronouns have usually been adopted in the nominative case (e.g. circus, augur, consul, genus), but inflected forms are occasionally found (generally depending on common early use in some particular phrase), such as the ablatives folio (from the phrase in folio), limbo, proviso, via, specie, rebus (pl.); the dative plural omnibus; the accusative requiem; the genitive plural quorum. To these we may add various Latin verbal forms which have become crystallized in the same way through some frequent construction (e.g. in legal formulae), and are now often used as nouns, e.g. deficit, exit, caveat, ignoramus, interest, recipe, veto, tenet, ftat. Latin prepositions and adverbs are adopted direct less commonly than nouns, adjectives, and verbs, but some do occur in English, though these

again commonly appear as nouns: alias, alibi, extra, interim, item, verbatim.

It must be noted that in the literature of certain periods, or among certain groups of writers, loan-words from Latin are used especially freely. This may or may not lead to copious adoption of Latin words in ordinary use. The period of the Renaissance certainly added very many Latin words to our ordinary vocabulary, as well as introducing many which failed to receive general approval. The frequent Latinisms sometimes found in poetic diction, as, for instance, in that of Milton, and in that of the eighteenth-century poets, have had far less effect on English as a whole.

We shall conclude this sketch of Latin borrowings since Old English by giving a brief dated list of forms appearing since 1500 and still surviving (showing the first recorded appearance in English), omitting derivative verbs, nouns, and adjectives (e.g. those with the suffixes mentioned above, and those compounded with common prefixes, such as de-, dis-, ex-, in-, inter-, infra-, per-, pre-, pro-, etc., many of which are Latin, though some are French), and also verbs which are formed directly from Latin verbal stems without suffix. The list will therefore consist chiefly of nouns and simple adjectives, some of the nouns being adopted from other parts of speech in Latin.

It will be seen from this list that the infiltration of Latin words has been continuous since 1500, the largest numbers having been introduced during the second half of the sixteenth century and the first half of the seventeenth, and the smallest number during the last half of the eighteenth century.

1500-1549

Cadaver 1500; arbiter 1502; integer 1509; genius 1513; torpedo 1520 (of a fish; as a term in gunnery 1775); pollen 1523; junior 1526; cornea, fungus 1527; vertigo 1528; acumen 1531; folio 1533; alias, mandamus, quondam 1535; area, exit, peninsula 1538; quietus, regalia 1540; abdomen, animal (adj.), pus 1541; appendix, miser 1542; circus 1546; aborigines 1547; interim 1548; augur, axis 1549.

1550-1599

Vacuum 1550; genus, medium, specie, species 1551; terminus

1555; caesura 1556; caveat, multiplex 1557; corona, hiatus 1563; innuendo 1564; cerebellum 1565; decorum 1568; aliquot, nasturtium, vertex 1570; indecorum 1575; ignoramus, vagary 1577; interregnum, mamma, nostrum 1579; codex, compendium, exordium, viva-voce 1581; nonplus, octavo, omen 1582; posse 1583; quarto 1589; militia 1590; cornucopia 1592; multiplicand 1594; radius, sinus 1597; albumen, arcana, delirium, simulacrum, stratum, virus 1599.

1600-1649

Toga 1600; premium 1601; nostrum, odium 1602; rebus 1605; torpor 1607; equilibrium 1608; specimen 1610; spectrum, series, tiro 1611; census 1613; cerebrum, plus, vertebra 1615; amanuensis, tenet 1619; literati, squalor 1621; affidavit, par 1622; arena 1627; apparatus 1628; agendum, -a, vade-mecum, veto 1629; fiat 1631; farrago 1632; curriculum 1633; forceps 1634; query 1635; gratis 1636; formula 1638; imprimatur, onus 1640; crux, impetus, locum (tenens) 1641; focus 1644; alumnus 1645; data, -um 1646; plebs 1647; insignia 1649.

1650-1699

Copula, stamen 1650; album, larva, viscera 1651; complex, desideratum, vortex 1652; pallor 1656; frustum, honorarium 1658; pendulum 1660; nebula, rabies 1661; tedium 1662; lacuna, minimum 1663; afflatus 1665; tuber 1668; dictum 1670; corolla 1671; residuum, serum 1672; fulcrum 1674; pabulum, vinculum 1678; calculus, mica, stimulus 1684; scintilla 1692; lens, lumbago, status 1693; antenna 1698; momentum 1699.

1700-1749

Nucleus 1704; cirrus 1708; caret 1710; inertia 1713; locus 1715; propaganda 1718; alibi 1727 (adv., as n. in 1774); auditorium 1727; ultimatum 1731; maximum 1740.

1750-1799

Minutia, -ae 1751; insomnia 1758; bonus (n.) 1773; extra, herbarium 1776; prospectus 1777; via (prep.) 1779; deficit (n.) 1782; tandem 1785; addendum 1794; detritus 1795; habitat, humus 1796.

1800-1849

Excursus 1803; dementia 1806; cognomen, opus 1809; candelabrum, pupa 1815; duplex 1817; stet 1821; incunabula 1824: omnibus 1829: animus 1831; sanatorium 1840.

1850-1899

Aquarium, consensus 1854; moratorium 1875; referendum 1882; bacillus 1883.

(B) GREEK

A few Greek words discussed in Chapter II came directly into Germanic before English became an independent dialect. But many Greek words reached English before the Conquest through Latin, and Latin is the immediate source of the majority of the later Greek loan-words in English. In Middle English, most of the Greek borrowings came through Latin by way of French. Those that have reached English directly, and those that have come through Latin, in Middle and Modern English, have done so through literature or scientific writings, and thus are nearly all words of 'learned' origin, though a fair proportion of them have become popularized (cf. acrobat, alphabet, asylum, atom, bulb, camera, celery, character, chemist, chorus, comma, cycle, and many others).

Here, again, as in the case of the modern Latin loans considered in the previous section, the interest lies mainly in the evidence of the continued influence of Greek art, and the continued tradition of Greek science, in England as previously in Rome.

The Greek technical words now in scientific use fill many pages in most dictionaries, though most of them are not in everyday use. A very large number of these are compound words, either taken from an already existing Greek compound, or, more commonly, made up of individual Greek elements (which may or may not have been used in Greek to form compounds). A comparatively small number of these words, all of which are originally 'learned', have become 'popular', e.g. telephone, -graph; gramophone; thermometer, barometer.

The present work is not intended to deal with purely technical words, and all that will be done here is to give a few examples of the type of Greek element used in these technical compounds, with a few forms derived from each, simply to indicate their characteristics. The Greek words made use of in this way are usually nouns, adjectives, or prepositions.

From Greek nouns: anemo- (Gk. anemos 'wind'): anemograph, -meter, -scope. Antho- (Gk. anthos 'flower'): anthology -chlorin, -genetic, -phagous. Anthropo- (Gk. anthropos 'man'): anthropology, -geography, -morphic, -phagy; anthropoid. Bio- (Gk. bios 'way of life'): biochemistry, -genesis, -graph, -graphy, -logy, -nomics, -scope. Broncho- (Gk. brogkos 'windpipe'): bronchocele, -plegia, -pulmonary, -pneumonia; bronchitis. Cephalo- (Gk. kephalē 'head'): cephalocaudal, -facial, -mancy, -pod, -ptera, -thorax. Chloro- (Gk. khlōros 'light green'): chloroform, -phyll, -phane; chlorate, chlorine, chlorosis. Chrono- (Gk. khronos 'time'): chronogram, -isotherm, logg, -motor, -phor, -thormal Geo. (Gla geō 'carth'): grandesy -logy, -meter, -pher, -thermal. Geo- (Gk. geō- 'earth'): geodesy, -gnosy, -graphy, -logy, -mancy, -metry, -phone, -physics, -tropic. -gnosy, -graphy, -logy, -mancy, -metry, -phone, -physics, -tropic. Helio- (Gk. helios 'sun'): heliocentric, -chromy, -graph, -meter, -stat, -therapy, -trope, -typy. Hydro- (Gk. hudr- 'water'): hydrocarbon, -cephalic, -chloric, -gen, -logy, -meter, -pathy, -phobia, -plane, -static. Litho- (Gk. lithos 'stone'): lithocarp, -phobia, -phane, -static. Limb- (GR. ithos stone): honocarp, -chromatic, -chrome, -genous, -graphy, -mancy, -phyte, -tomy. Logo- (Gk. logos 'word'): logocyclic, -daedaly, -graph, -machia, -mancy, -nomy, -type. Neuro- (Gk. neuron 'nerve'): neurology, -pathic, -sis. Physio- (Gk. phusis 'nature'; the y in this and other words of Gk. origin is a Latin spelling of Gk. u): physiognomy, -graphy, -logy.

From Greek adjectives: acro- (Gk. akros' topmost, extreme'): acrocephalic, -lith, -megaly, -polis. Aero- (Gk. aeros' of air'): aerodrome, -dynamics, -naut, -phore, -phyte, -plane, -stat. Archaeo- (Gk. arkhaios' ancient'): archaeology, -nomous, -pteryx. Auto- (Gk. autos' same, self'): autobiography, -chthon, -cracy, -graph, -matic, -nomy, -mobile (a hybrid, the second element Latin), -toxin, -type. Caco- (Gk. kakos' bad, evil'): cacodyl, -epy, -ethes, -graphy, -phony. Eu- (Gk. eu' well'): eucalyptus, -demonics, -hemerism, -logy, -phemism, -phrasy, -phuism, -rhythmics. Hemi- (Gk. hēmi- 'half'): hemicycle, -pterous, -sphere, -stich. Hetero- (Gk. heteros' different'): heterodox, -dyne, -geneous, -morphic, -nomy. Holo- (Gk. holos' whole,

entire'): holocarp, -caust, -graph, -phote, -spheric. Homo-(Gk. homos 'same'): homoblastic, -dont, -geneous, -graph, -logy, -nym, -phone. Idio- (Gk. idios 'private, personal'): idiomatic, -morphic, -pathic, -syncrasy. Iso- (Gk. isos 'equal'): isobar, -clinic, -gonic, -pod, -therm. Macro- (Gk. makros 'long'): macrobiosis, -cosm, -cephalic, -cranial, -petalous, -pod. Mega-(Gk. megas 'large'): megacephalous, -lith, -pod, -therium. Megalo- (Gk. megalē 'large'): megalomania, -saurus. Micro-(Gk. mīkros 'small'): microbiology, -cephalic, -cosm, -meter, -phone, -scope, -spore, -tome. Mono- (Gk. monos 'alone, single'): monochord, -chrome, -cyclic, -drama, -gamy, -gram, -graph, -lith, -logue, -mania, -morphic, -poly, -syllable, -phthong, -theism, -tone, -type. Neo- (Gk. neos 'new'): neolithic, -logism, -phyte; neo-Classic, neo-Gothic, neo-Platonism. Pan- (Gk. pân 'all'): panacea, -cratium, -dect, -demic, -orma, -oply, -opticon, -technicon. Poly- (Gk. polus 'much, many'): polyanthus, -archy, -chrome, -gamy, -glot, -gon, -morphic, -onymy, -phone.

-technicon. Poly- (Gk. polus 'much, many'): polyanthus, -archy, -chrome, -gamy, -glot, -gon, -morphic, -onymy, -phone. From Greek prepositions, etc.: Amphi- (Gk. amphi 'on both sides'): amphibrach, -centric, -pod, -theatre. Anti- (Gk. anti 'against'): antitoxin, -dote, -logy, -pathy, -pyretic. Apo- (Gk. apo 'away, apart'): apocope, -deictic, -dosis, -logy, -plexy, -stasy, -them. Cata- (Gk. kata 'down from, against, over', etc.): catabolism, -clasm, -clysm, -lepsis, -logue, -plasm, -ract, -rrhine, -strophe. Dys- (Gk. dus-, with negative or pejorative force): dysentery, -genic, -logistic, -pepsia, -phonia, -pnoea. Endo- (Gk. endon 'within'): endogamy, -crine, -derm, -gen, -morph, -plasm, -sperm. Epi- (Gk. epi 'on, over'): epicentre, -cycle, -demic, -dermis, -glottis, -gram, -lepsy, -logue, -scopacy, -strophe, -style, -taph, -thelium. Hyper- (Gk. huper 'beyond'): hyperbole, -borean, -metrical, -trophic. Meta- (Gk. meta 'between', often expressing change): metabolic, -carpus, -centre, -mere, -morphic, -phor, -phrase, -physics, -thesis. Para- (Gk. para 'from, against'): parallel, -phrase, -lipsis, -digm, -dox, -graph, -logism, -plegia. Peri- (Gk. peri 'around'): perianth, -cardium, -cope, -cranium, -patetic, -phrase, -scope, -spomenon, -style. Syn-, syl-, sym- (Gk. sun 'with'): synchronize, -cope, -ecdoche, -onym, -opsis, -tax, -thesis; syllabus, -lable, -logism; symmetry, -pathy, -physis, -ptom, -posium.

Even in these examples, which are but a fraction of the total

number of Greek words used to form English compounds, we see several of the commoner forms used as second elements in compounds. We need only mention such forms as -phile, -phobe (-phobia), -archy, -mania, -logy, -mancy, -gram, -graph, -scope, -phone, -morphic, -pathy, -meter (-metry). The commonest Greek verb suffix in English—still used as a living suffix—is -ize, which occurs in words directly from Greek, from Greek through Latin or (spelt -ise) through French, as well as in words not of Greek origin (e.g. macadamize). With this belong the nounsuffixes -ism and -ist, both of which are common as living suffixes.

We shall end with brief lists (A) of Greek words adopted in Middle English and up to 1500 through French (and Latin), (B) of Greek words adopted since 1500 through Latin and directly from Greek. Those under (B) will be given in chronological order.

(A) Middle English and up to 1500

(1) Borrowed through French:-

Academy, atom, bible, centre, character, climate, currant, diet, diphthong, dropsy, dynasty, ecstasy, emblem, emery, fancy, fantasy, frenzy, galaxy, harmony, horizon, idiot, ink, liquorice, logic, lyre, magic, magnet, melon, muse, mystery, nymph, paten, pause, phantasm, pheasant, plane, pomp, quince, resin, rhetoric, rheum, rheumatic, rhubarb, rue, scandal, schism, spasm, sphere, stratagem, surgeon, theatre, thyme, tiffany, tragedy, treacle, turpentine, type, tyrant.

(2) Through Latin only:-

Abyss, agony, allegory, amethyst, artery, asphalt, asylum, centaur, chaos, chimera, comedy, crypt, cycle, dactyl, demon, echo, ethic, halcyon, hero, history, hyaena, iris, mania, mechanic (adj.), meteor, papyrus, phial, piracy, pirate, pole, plague, prune, quinsy, siren, sphinx, syringe, theme, thesis, thorax.

(B) After 1500

(A word followed by (L) was borrowed through Latin; (F) indicates borrowing through French; otherwise the words were adopted directly from Greek.)

1500-1549

Irony (L) 1502; alphabet (L), trophy (F) 1513; elegy (F) 1514; drama (L) 1515; tome (L) 1519; dilemma (L) 1523;

gorgon (L) 1529; phrase 1530; idea (L) 1531; trope (L) 1533; enigma (L) 1539; scene (F) 1540; rhapsody 1542; crisis 1543; tragic (F) 1545; cynic (L) 1547; labyrinth (L) 1548; machine (F) 1549.

1550-1599

Scheme (L) 1550; anemone (L), clematis (L), cube (F) 1551; distich (L), hyacinth (L), phalanx (L) 1553; caustic (L), isthmus (L), nectar (L), troglodyte (L) 1555; rhythm (L) 1557; chorus (L) 1561; chemist (F), despot (F) 1562; halo (F) 1563; ambrosia (L) 1567; bulb (L), topic 1568; nausea (L) 1569; chord (L), cylinder (L), prism (L) 1570; basis (L) 1571; sceptic (L) 1575; meander (L) 1576; larynx, skeleton (L) 1578; pathos 1579; amnesty (L) 1580; climax (L), diatribe (F), praxis 1581; comma (L) 1586; acrostic (L), colon (L), nomad (L), philtre (F) 1587; critic (L), ode (F) 1588; epic (L), trochee (L) 1589; disaster (F), python (L) 1590; phaeton (L) 1593; chasm (L), cynosure (L), patriot (F), stigma (L) 1596; theory (L) 1597; energy (L) 1599.

1600-1649

Idyll (L) 1601; archive (L), enthusiasm (L), strophe 1603; acoustic (F) 1605; orchestra (L) 1606; barytone (F) 1609; absinthe (F) 1612; crater (L) 1613; museum (L) 1615; system (L) 1619; hyphen (L) 1620; colophon (L) 1621; clinic (L), tactics (L) 1626; lymph (L) 1630; dogma (L) 1638; typhus (L) 1643; coma, electric (Mod. L.) 1646; aeon (L) 1647; tonic 1649.

1650-1699

Cosmos 1650; elastic (Mod. L.) 1653; siphon (L) 1659; celery (F), disk (L) 1664; nous 1678; pharynx (L) 1693; botany (L) 1696.

1700-1749

Phlox 1706; camera (L) 1708; bathos 1727; triptych 1731; philander 1731.

1750-1799

Anther (L) 1791; thrips 1795.

1800-1849

Rhea 1801; phase 1812; pylon 1823; acrobat (F) 1825; corm, myth, rhizome 1830.

1850-1899

Agnostic 1870; therm 1888.

APPENDIX A

PRE-CONQUEST LOAN-WORDS FROM LATIN

(A) Words from the Continental period, up to about 400, showing early borrowing by corresponding forms in other Germanic dialects, or by their phonological form (i.e. absence of early Romance changes, or presence of sound-changes which took place before or very shortly after the settlement of the English in this country). *Note*: When no translation of the Latin words is given, they may be taken as having approximately the same meaning as the Old English words derived from them.

A (1) MILITARY, LEGAL, OFFICIAL

camp 'field, open space; battle'; also campian 'to fight', cempa 'warrior' (cf. Mod. Eng. camp, which is from French). Lat. campus.

cāsere 'emperor'. Lat. Caesar.

cearrige, -uge, a vehicle. Lat. carrūca, of Gaulish origin.

ceas(t) 'strife'. Lat. causa 'cause, reason; business; judicial process'.

diht 'saying, direction', dihtan 'to set in order; direct; dictate' [DIGHT]. Lat. dictum n., dictare vb.

insigle 'seal'. Lat. insigillum.

pin 'punishment, pain ', pinian 'to punish, torture '. Vulg. Lat. pēna, Lat. poena 'penalty, punishment', from Gk. poinē.

scrifan 'to allot, decree'. The ecclesiastical sense, SHRIVE, is a later development. Lat. scribere 'to write; to set down in writing; to subscribe to; to draft (a law)'.

scrift 'something decreed as a penalty'; later, 'penance, shrift; confessor.' Lat. scriptum 'something written; composition; enactment'.

seam 'burden', seamere 'beast of burden'. Vulg. Lat. sauma, saumārius, from Lat. sagma 'pack-saddle', from Gk. sagma.

sino o council, synod . Lat. synodus, from Gk. synodos.

stræt (i) 'road; paved road, street', (ii) 'bed'. Lat. (i) strāta, (ii) strātum.

trifot 'tribute'. Lat. tributum.

A (2) TRADE, MEASURES, ETC.

ceap 'goods, price, market' [CHEAP]; vbs. ceapian, ciepan 'to buy'. Lat. caupō 'innkeeper, wineseller; small tradesman'. (The trade in wine was one of the earliest to be established in the Germanic-speaking areas (already in the time of Tacitus) and the vine was cultivated in Germany from the time of Probus—the last quarter of the third century. See Wackernagel, Zeitschr. f. deutsches Altertum, vi, 262.)

mangere 'merchant, trader; -monger'; mangian 'to trade'.

The suffixes -ere, -ian are English. Lat. mangō 'a dealer

in slaves and other wares.'

mil 'MILE'. Lat. mille (passuum) 'a thousand paces' (about 1,618 yards).

mydd 'bushel'. Lat. modius, the Roman corn-measure.

(be)mūtian 'to change, exchange '. Lat. mūtāre.

pund 'POUND (weight or money); pint'. Lat. pondō, measure of weight.

(a) pundrian 'to weigh'. Lat. ponder-āre.

tolne, toll 'TOLL'. Vulg. Lat. tol-, Lat. telonium, from Gk. telonion.

A (3) Coins

casering 'imperial coin, drachma'. See casere under (1).

dinor 'a coin'. Lat. dēnārius.

mynet 'a coin; coinage, money' [MINT]. Lat. monēta 'mint, coin, money'.

trimes(se) 'drachm; a (foreign) coin'. Lat. tremissis.

A (4) METALS, ETC.

calc, cealc 'CHALK, plaster'. Lat. calc-em, calx.

coper 'COPPER'. L. Lat. cuprum, earlier aes cyprium, from Gk.

kuprion, named from the island of Cyprus.

gimm 'precious stone, jewel'. (Also a form gemme, borrowed in the third period.) Lat. gemma 'bud or eye of a plant; jewel, gem'. (Cf. Mod. Eng. gem, which is through French.)

meregrēot, -grota 'pearl'. Lat. margarīta (from Gk. margarītēs), but altered by popular etymology through the influence of O.E. mere 'sea, lake', and grēot, grota 'grit, gravel'.

pic 'PITCH'. Lat. picem, pix.

A (5) DRESS, TEXTILES, ETC.

belt 'BELT'. Lat. balteus, possibly of Etruscan origin.

bīsæċċ 'pocket'. Vulg. Lat. bisaccium (cf. sacc, below).

cemes 'shirt'. (Cf. chemise, which is from Fr.) L. Lat. camisia, from Celtic.

fullere 'FULLER of cloth'. Lat. fullo.

matte, meatta 'MAT'. Lat. matta, perhaps from Phoenician.

ōrel 'veil, mantle '. Lat. ōrārium.

pæll, pell 'rich robe; purple robe; PALL', pællen adj. 'purple, costly'. Lat. pallium from palla from *par(u)la, from Gk. phar-os 'mantle'.

pihten, part of a loom. Lat. pecten 'comb'.

pilece 'robe of skin', [PILCH]. Vulg. Lat. pellicea.

plūm-(feder) 'down'. (Cf. plume, from Fr.) Lat. plūma.

purpur, purple 'PURPLE garment'. Lat. purpura the purplefish; the dye obtained from it; purple cloth', from Gk. porphurā.

pyl(w)e 'PILLOW'. Lat. pulvīnus.

saban 'sheet'. Lat. sabanum, from Gk. sabanon.

sace 'sack, bag'. Lat. saccus from Gk. sakkos, from Phoenician. sæcc 'sack, bag'. Vulg. Lat. *saccium, from Lat. saccus (see above).

side 'silk '. Vulg. Lat. *sēda from Lat. sēta 'hair, bristle '.

sioluc, *sil(u)c 'SELK'. Later loan than next word; apparently also from Lat. sēricum.

sīric 'silk'. Lat. sēricum, from Sēres, Latinized form of name of E. Asiatic people, the Chinese.

soce 'shoe, sock'. Lat. soccus, from Gk. *sokkhos, sukkhos.

strægl 'mattress, bed'. Lat. strāgula 'rug, horsecloth'.

swiftlere 'slipper'; probably for *sufflere, changed by popular etymology through the influence of swift. Lat. sub-talāris.

sutere 'shoemaker'. Lat. sutor.

timple, an instrument used in weaving. Lat. templa (pl.) 'small timbers'.

A (6) HOUSEHOLD AND OTHER USEFUL OBJECTS

candel 'CANDLE'. Lat. candēla.

fifele 'buckle'. Lat. fībula. fæčele 'torch'. Lat. facula.

mise 'table'. (The form mese is probably a later borrowing.) Vulg. Lat. mēsa, Lat. mēnsa.

pipe 'PIPE' (musical instrument or tube); vb. pipian 'to play on a pipe'. Vulg. Lat. *pīpa, from Lat. pīpāre' to play on a pipe '.

scamol 'bench, stool', [SHAMBLES]. Lat. scamellum. segne 'fishing-net'. Lat. sagēna, from Gk. sagēnē. spynģe 'sponge'. (Mod. Eng. sponge from Fr.) Lat. spongea, from Gk. sphoggia.

tæfl, a game played on a board. Lat. tabula.

A (7) FOOD, DRINK, COOKING

butere 'BUTTER'. Lat. būtyrium, from Gk. boutūron. ceren 'new wine'. Lat. carēnum, from Gk. karoinon. cese, ciese 'cheese'. Lat. cāseus. must 'new wine, MUST'. Lat. mustum. sælmerige 'brine'. Lat. salmuria, from Gk. halmuris. seim, *segem 'lard, fat'. Vulg. Lat. *sagīmen. win 'WINE'. Lat. vīnum.

A (8) VESSELS, ETC.

binn 'manger, BIN'. Lat. benna, a Celtic loan-word. box (see under plants, below). buteric 'leather bottle '. Vulg. Lat. buta. bytt 'bottle, flagon'. Vulg. Lat. buttis (from a diminutive of this comes bottle, through French). celc, cælic 'cup'. Lat. calīc-em. (Cf. chalice, through Fr.) cetel, cietel 'kettle'. Lat. catellus. (Mod. Eng. kettle is from O.N. ketill, also a loan-word from Lat.) cupp(e) 'CUP'. Vulg. Lat. cuppa. cuculer 'spoon'. Lat. cochlear, ultimately from Gk. cyll 'leather bottle'. Lat. culleus. disc ' plate, dish'. Lat. discus, from Gk. diskos. earc(e) 'chest, ARK'. Lat. arca. gabote, *gafote 'small dish'. Lat. qabata. gellet 'basin'. Vulg. Lat. gallētum. lebil, læfel 'cup, bowl'. Lat. labellum. ore 'cup, flagon'. Lat. orca, possibly Phoenician. panne 'PAN'. Vulg. Lat. panna, from Lat. patina 'dish'. scrin 'chest', later 'shrine'. Lat. scrinium. sester, seoxter 'jar; a measure'. Lat. sextārius. spyrte 'basket'. Vulg. Lat. *sporta, from Gk. spurida.

A (9) Towns, Houses, Building

ceaster 'city'. (Also cæster, reborrowed at a later period.)
Lat. castra (pl.) 'camp'. This is the usual term for a city
in O.E., and is commonly used to translate Lat. civitas,

which had acquired the sense of 'city' by A.D. 200. It also occurs in English Place-Names, being often added by the English to Romano-British names, now ending in -chester, -caster, -cester. (See Crawford in Introd. to Survey of English Place-Names (1922), pp. 146 ff.)

ceosol 'hut'. Lat. casula, casella.

clūs(e) 'enclosure'. Vulg. Lat. clūsa, Lat. clausa.

clūstor 'lock, barrier, enclosure'. Vulg. Lat. clūstrum, Lat. claustrum.

cruft(e) 'vault, crypt'. Lat. crupta, crypta, from Gk. kruptē.

cycene 'KITCHEN'. Lat. coquina.

cylen 'KILN'. Lat. culīna.

line 'LINE, cord'. Lat. linea.

pearroc 'enclosure'. Vulg. Lat. parricus. (Whence Mod. Eng. park, through French.)

pil 'pointed stick'. Lat. pīlum.

pile 'stake, PILE; a mortar'; vb. pilian 'to pound in a mortar'.

Lat. pila.

pinn' PIN, peg; pen'. Lat. penna. (Mod. Eng. pen is through Fr.) pīsle 'warm room'. Vulg. Lat. pēsālis, Lat. pēnsilis, used architecturally of arched or colonnaded structure, specifically of vapour-baths.

port (i) 'town, harbour, port'. Lat. portus 'harbour, haven'.

port (ii) 'gate, door'. Lat. porta.

portic 'porch, vestibule'. Lat. porticus. (Mod. Eng. porch is through Fr.)

post 'POST'. Lat. postis.

pundur 'plumb-line'. Lat. pondere, ablative of pondus' weight'. regol' wooden ruler'. Later used in abstract sense for monastic rule, etc. Lat. regula.

scindel 'roof-shingle'. Lat. scindula.

tīġle 'TILE, brick '. Lat. tēgula.

weall 'WALL, rampart'. Lat. vallum.

wić 'dwelling, village; camp'. Lat. vīcus.

ynce 'INCH'. (Cf. later yndse, under C.) Lat. uncia.

A (10) PLANTS AND AGRICULTURE

(a) billere, a kind of cress. Lat. berula, of Celtic origin.

box 'Box-tree; box (made of box-wood)'. Lat. buxus 'box-tree', buxum, its wood, or something made of this, from Gk. puxos.

byxen 'made of box-wood'. With Gmc. adjectival suffix.

ciceling 'chickpea'. With Gmc. -ing suffix. Lat. cicer, probably from an East European source. cipe 'onion'. Lat. cēpe. Probably from a Gk. *kēpe. cesten-(bēam) 'chestnut-tree'. Lat. castanea, from Gk. kastanon. ciris-(bēam) 'cherry-tree'. Vulg. Lat. ceresia, Lat. cerasum (the fruit), from Gk. kerasion. (The Mod. forms of this and of the preceding word come through French.) codd-(æppel) 'quince'. Lat. cu-, cydonia, from Gk. kudonia. corn-(treo) 'cornel'. Lat. cornus. cymen 'cummin'. Lat. cuminum, from Gk. kuminon. cyrfet 'gourd'. Lat. cucurbita. (The reduplicating syllable cuis lost in Germanic.) fic 'fig'. Lat. fīcus, from some Mediterranean dialect. (Mod. Eng. fig is through Fr.) finu(g)l' FENNEL'. Lat. fenuculum. mealwe 'MALLOW'. Lat. malva. mil 'millet'. Lat. milium. (Millet is from a Fr. diminutive of Lat. mil-ium.) minte 'MINT'. Lat. menta, minthe, probably from a S. European language. næp 'turnip'. Lat. nāpus, probably from Egyptian, perhaps through Gk. pise, peose 'PEA'. Lat. pisum, from Gk. pisos, from an E. European dialect. pin-(bēam) 'PINE'. Lat. pīnus. piper 'PEPPER'. Lat. piper, from Gk. peperi. pirie 'pear-tree'. (Cf. peru, under B.) Lat. pirea. plume 'PLUM'. Lat. prūnum, from Gk. proûmnon. plyme 'plum-tree'. Vulg. Lat. *prunea, from Lat. prūnum. popig, papig 'POPPY'. Lat. papaver. porr 'leek'. Lat. porrum. rædic 'radish'. Lat. rādic-em 'root, radish'. rūde 'rue'. Vulg. Lat. rūda, Lat. rūta. sinop 'mustard'. Lat. sinapis, from Gk. sināpi. syrfe 'service-tree'. Vulg. Lat. sorvea, from Lat. sorb-us. ynne 'onion'. Lat. union-em. (b) cipp 'ploughshare'. Lat. cippus. culter 'COULTER'. Lat. culter. impian 'to graft'. Vulg. Lat. imp(utare). mylen 'mill'. Lat. molīna. plante 'PLANT', vb. plantian 'to plant'. Lat. planta. pytt 'PIT, cistern'. Lat. puteus.

sicol 'SICKLE'. Lat. sēcula.

A (11) ANIMALS, BIRDS, FISH

assa, assen (fem.) 'Ass'. Lat. asinus, -a, probably through Celtic. culfer' dove'. Vulg. Lat. *columbra, Lat. columbula.

cypera 'salmon at the time of spawning', [KIPPER]. Probably

Lat. copor 'copper', named from its colour.

draca 'dragon', [DRAKE]. Lat. dracō, from Gk. drakōn.

elpend, ylpend 'elephant'. Lat. elephant-, from Gk. elephant-.

eosol, esol 'ass'. Lat. asellus 'little ass'.

mul 'mule'. Lat. mulus.

olfend 'camel'. The source of this word is doubtful. Gothic has ulbandus, O.H.G. olbenda, and it seems certain that it has some connexion with the Gk. or Lat. elephant. It is possibly a loan-word which came into Gmc. through Gothic from Asia Minor.

ostre 'oyster'. Lat. ostrea, from Gk. ostreon.

pēa, pāwa 'peacock'. Lat. pavō, of Eastern origin.

strūta, strytė 'ostrich'. Lat. strūthio, from Gk. strouthios.

turtle, -a 'TURTLE-dove'. Lat. turtur.

A (12) DISEASE AND MEDICINE

(a) cofrian 'to recover'. Lat. (re) cuperāre.

fefor, -er 'FEVER'. Lat. febris.

flitme 'lancet'. Vulg. Lat. flētoma, Lat. phlebotomus, from Gk. phlebotomos.

A (13) MISCELLANEOUS

crisp 'curly'. Lat. crispus.

miltistre 'harlot'. Lat. meret(rīx), with Eng. suffix -estre.

nëomian 'to produce harmony'. Vulg. Lat. neuma, from Gk. pneuma 'breath'.

pīs 'heavy'. Vulg. Lat. pēsus, Lat. pēnsus.

s(e) altian 'to dance', sealt(icge) 'dancer'. Lat. salt-āre.

sicor 'safe'. Lat. sēcūrus.

syfre 'sober'. Lat. sōbrius.

turnian 'to turn'. Vulg. Lat. tornāre 'to turn', Lat. tornāre 'to turn in a lathe'. The date of borrowing of this word is very uncertain; it may be considerably later.

(B) Words probably borrowed in Britain, 450-650. These are still loans from the spoken language.

B (1) LEGAL AND OFFICIAL

insegel 'seal'. Cf. earlier insigle.

mægester 'master'. Lat. magister.

pra-, profost 'officer, steward, PROVOST'. Vulg. Lat. prepositus, Lat. praepositus.

seglian 'to seal'. Lat. sigillare.

segn 'mark, sign, banner'. Lat. signum.

senoo 'council'. Cf. earlier sinoo.

B (2) TRADE

cystan 'to spend'. Vulg. Lat. costāre, Lat. constāre.

B (3) METALS, ETC.

pærl 'pearl'. Vulg. Lat. *perla.

B (4) DRESS, TEXTILES, ETC.

celis, a kind of shoe (?). Occurs as a gloss to pediles in Cod. Carolsruh. Aug. IC. (Schlutter, Anglia, xxxvii, 45). Lat. calceus.

(ge)corded 'of plain stuff'. Vulg. Lat. cordatus, from Lat. chorda.

coren-(bēag) 'crown'. Lat. corona.

cugle 'COWL'. Vulg. Lat. cuculla, Lat. cucullus.

cyrtel 'garment, coat, KIRTLE', from cyrtan 'to shorten' (see under 14 below).

derodine 'scarlet dye', Vulg. Lat. dirodinum, from Gk. diarhodon. mentel 'cloak'. Lat. mantellum.

stropp 'strap'. Lat. stroppus.

tæpped, -et, teped 'wall or floor covering'; tæppel-(bred) 'footstool'. Lat. tapētum.

B (5) Household and Other Useful Objects

cæfester 'halter'. Lat. capistrum.

cæfi 'halter, muzzle'.

pilstre 'pestle'. Lat. $p\bar{\imath}la + pistillum$.

tasul, teosol 'a die; a small square of stone'. Lat. tessella.

trefet 'TRIVET, tripod'. Lat. tripod-em.

B (6) HUNTING AND FISHING

ancor 'Anchor '. Lat. anchora, from Gk. agkūra.

cocer 'quiver'. Vulg. Lat. cucurum.

punt 'PUNT, flat boat'. Lat. ponto.

B (7) FOOD AND COOKING

eced 'vinegar'. Lat. acētum.

foca 'cake baked on the hearth'. Lat. focus 'hearth'.

oele 'oil'. Vulg. Lat. oli, Lat. oleum.

B (8) VESSELS

byden 'bushel; barrel'. Vulg. Lat. butina. cæpse 'coffer'. Lat. capsa. cest 'CHEST'. Vulg. Lat. cesta. Lat. cista.

copp 'cup'. Vulg. Lat. cuppa.

cỹf 'vat, cask '. Vulg. Lat. cūpia, Lat. cūpa.

cvfl. cufel 'tub'. Vulg. Lat. cupellus.

mortere 'MORTAR'. Lat. mortarium.

pæġel 'PAIL'. Vulg. Lat. pagella.

nott ' POT '. Vulg. Lat. pottus (?).

tunne 'cask, TUN'. Vulg. Lat. tunne.

turl 'ladle, trowel'. Lat. trulla.

tyncen 'small barrel'. Probably diminutive of tunne.

B (9) Towns, Houses, Building

ceafor-(tūn) 'hall, court'. Vulg. Lat. capreus 'timber, spar, rafter'.

cæster 'town'. (Cf. earlier ceaster.)

cylene 'town'. (In Place-Names.) Lat. colonia, through British.

mūr 'wall'. Lat. mūrus.

pæl, pal 'post, stake'. Lat. palus.

solor 'upper room'. Lat. solarium.

torr 'tower'. Lat. turris.

B (10) PLANTS AND AGRICULTURE

(a) sebs 'fir-tree'. Lat. abiēs.

cerfelle 'CHERVIL'. Lat. cerefolium.

coccel 'corn-cockle'. Vulg. Lat. cocculus.

coelender, celendre 'coriander'. Lat. coriandrum, from Gk. koriannon.

consolde 'comfrey'. Vulg. Lat. consolida.

cost 'costmary'. Lat. costus, from Gk. kostos.

croh. crog 'saffron'. Lat. crocus.

elehtre, elotr 'lupin'. Lat. electrum 'amber; the metal electrum', from Gk. ēlektron. (The plant owes its name to its colour.)

eofole (?) 'dwarf elder'. Lat. ebulus.

eolone 'elecampane'. Lat. inula.

glædene 'gladiola'. Lat. gladiola.

humele, hymele 'hop-plant'. Vulg. Lat. humulus. (Possibly from Slavonic.)

leahtroc 'lettuce'. Lat. lactūca.

laser 'tare'. Lat. laser.

lent 'lentil'. Lat. lent-em.

lufestice 'lovage'. Vulg. Lat. luvestica, Lat. ligusticum.

mor-, mur-(berie) 'mulberry'. Lat. morum.

næfte, nefte 'catmint'. Lat. nepeta.

ōser 'osier'. Vulg. Lat. ōsāria, ausāria. (Mod. osier is through Fr.) pere 'PEAR'. Lat. pirum.

petersilie 'parsley'. Lat. petroselinum. (Mod. parsley is through

Fr. persel, though probably influenced by the O.E. ending.)

pipeneale 'pimpernel'. Vulg. Lat. piperīnella.
pollegie 'pennyroyal'. Lat. pūlegium.
pyretre 'pyrethrum'. Lat. pyrethrum, from Gk. purethron.

sæppe 'spruce-fir'. Lat. sappīnus.

senap 'mustard'. (Cf. earlier sinop.)

solsece 'heliotrope'. Lat. sōlsequra.

(b) pil 'hair of plant', vb. pilian 'to PEEL, skin'. Lat. pilus, pil-āre.

fann 'winnowing-FAN'. Lat. vannus.

forca 'FORK'. Lat. furca.

fossere 'spade'. Lat. fossörium.

mattue 'MATTOCK'. Vulg. Lat. mat-io.

pāl 'spade'. Lat. pāla.

B (11) Animals, Birds, Fishes

catt(e) 'CAT'. (?) Vulg. Lat. cattus, -a. Origin doubtful. cocc (i) 'cock'. Vulg. Lat coccus.

cocc (ii) 'cockle'. Vulg. Lat. cocculus. Lat. concha from Gk. koakhē.

lempedu 'lamprey', [LIMPET]. Vulg. Lat. lamprēta.

muscelle, muscle 'MUSSEL'. Lat. mūsculus.

pine-(wincle) 'winkle'. Lat. pina, from Gk. pina.

rēnģe 'spider'. Lat. arānea.

truht 'TROUT'. Lat. tructa.

B (12) MEDICINE

(for)stoppian 'to stop up'. Vulg. Lat. stuppāre, Lat. stuppa 'tow', from Gk. stuppē.

lafian 'to bathe, wash, LAVE'. Lat. lavare.

trifulian 'to grind to powder'. Lat. tribulare.

B (13) Religion and Learning

dilegian 'to cancel, expunge'. Lat. dēlēre.

gloesan 'to interpret, gloss'. Lat. glössa 'a foreign word needing explanation, from Gk. glossa.

græf 'a style'. Lat. graphium, from graphion.

læden 'Latin; language '. Vulg. Lat. Ladīnus, Lat. Latīnus.

munue 'MONK'. Lat. monachus, from Gk. monakhos.

mynecen 'nun'. Vulg. Lat. monic- (as preceding word) with Gmc. feminine suffix.

mynster 'monastery, minster'. Lat. monasterium, from Gk. monasterion.

nunne 'NUN'. L.Lat. nonna 'old lady, nun'.

pinsian, pisian 'to reflect, consider'. Lat. pensare.

relic 'RELIC'. Lat. reliquia.

segnian 'to make the sign of the Cross', from sein 'mark', see segn under (1) above.

traht 'text, passage, commentary'; trahtao 'commentary'; vb. trahtian 'to expound'. Lat. tractus, -ātus, -āre.

B (14) MISCELLANEOUS

cusc 'chaste, modest'. Lat. conscius. Perhaps through Old Saxon, in which the word occurs as kūskō.

cyrtan 'to shorten'. Lat. curt-us.

cyrten 'beautiful'. Vulg. Lat. cortinus, from Lat. cohorta 'cohort, company'. (For meaning, cf. courteous, and Germ. höflich and hübsch.)

isel 'island' (in Place-Names). Lat. insula.

munt 'mountain'. Lat. mont-em.

pyngan 'to prick'. Lat. pungere.

sætern-(dæg) 'SATURDAY'. Lat. Saturnī (dies). The only day of the week whose name is not of Gmc. origin.

(C) After 650. Late loan-words, including those of learned origin introduced through the written language (marked L).

C (1) MILITARY, LEGAL, OFFICIAL

arce-, ærce- (L) 'arch-' (in titles). Lat. archi- from Gk. arkhi-. carc(ern) 'prison'. Lat. carcer. (The O.E. ending is ærn, ern 'house'.)

centur (L) 'centurion'. Lat. centurio.

consul (L) 'consul'. Lat. consul. coorte (L) 'cohort'. Lat. cōhorta.

 (\bar{a}) cordian 'to reconcile'. Vulg. Lat. ac-cordāre.

 (\bar{a}) cūsan 'to accuse '. Lat. ac- $c\bar{u}s\bar{a}re$.

legie (L) 'legion'. Lat. legiō.

mīlite (L) 'soldiers'. Lat. mīlitēs (pl.).

-spendan 'to SPEND'. Lat. expendere.

C (2) MEASURES

cubit (L). Lat. cubitum 'elbow; measure of length'. sescle 'sixth part'. Lat. sextula. tālente (L) 'talent'. Lat. talenta. yndse 'ounce'. Lat. uncia.

C (3) METALS, ETC.

amber (L) 'ambergris'. Vulg. Lat. ambra.

āðamans (L) 'diamond'. Lat. adamant-em, from Gk. adamas,
—mant-.

cristalla (L) 'crystal'. Lat. crystallum, from Gk. krustallos.

gagāt (L) 'jet'. Lat. gagatēs, from Gk.

ġeaspis (L) 'jasper'. Lat. jaspis, from Gk.

marman-, marmel-(stān) 'marble'. Lat. marmor.

platung 'metal plate'. Vulg. Lat. platta.

pumic (L) 'pumice'. Vulg. Lat. pōmice, Lat. pumic-em.

spalder, spelter 'asphalt'. Lat. aspaltus, from Gk. aspalathos.

C (4) Dress, Textiles, etc.

albe (L) 'alb'. Lat. alba.
calc (L) 'shoe, sandal'. Lat. calceus.
cāp 'cope'. Vulg. Lat. cāpa, Lat. cappa.
cāsul (L) 'cassock'. Lat. casula.
cilic (L) 'hair-cloth'. Lat. cilicium.
corōna (L) 'crown'. (Cf. earlier coren.) Lat. corōna.
dalmatice (L) 'dalmatic'. Lat. dalmatica.
planete (L) 'chasuble'. Lat. planeta.
purs 'Purse'. Lat. bursa, from Gk. bursa.
stōl 'long outer garment'. Lat. stola, from Gk. stolē.
tunece 'coat, tunic'. Lat. tunica, of Semitic origin.

C (5) HOUSEHOLD AND OTHER USEFUL OBJECTS

cāma 'bridle'. Lat. cāmus.
casse 'hunting-net'. Lat. cassis.
cwatern (L) 'four on dice'. Lat. quaternus.
ferele 'rod'. Lat. ferula.
formelle (L) 'bench'. Lat. formella.
pic 'PIKE'. Vulg. Lat. pīcus.
press (L) 'wine-PRESS'. Vulg. Lat. pressa.
sponge (L) 'sponge'. (Cf. earlier spynġe.) Lat. spongea.
tabele, tablu (L) 'table, tablet'. (Cf. earlier tæfl.)
torcul (L) 'wine-press'. Lat. torcular.

tracter 'funnel'. Lat. tractārius.

C (6) Music, Poetry, etc.

antein (L) 'anthem'. L.Lat. antefana, from Gk. antiphōnē.

cantere (L) 'singer'. Lat. cantor.

cantic (L) 'song, hymn'. Lat. canticum.

chōr(a) (L) 'dance; chorus'. Lat. chorus.

cimbal(a) (L) 'cymbal'. Lat. cymbalum, from Gk. kumbalon.

citere 'cither'. Lat. cithara, from Gk. kithara.

fers 'verse'. Lat. versus.

fiðele 'FIDDLE '. Vulg. Lat. vītula.

mēter (L) 'metre'. Lat. metrum, from Gk. metron.

organ (L) 'song'; organistre 'organist'; vb. organian 'to sing to an accompaniment'. Lat. organum 'instrument; musical instrument', from Gk. organon.

orgel 'organ'. Lat. organum.

reps, respons (L) 'liturgical response'. Lat. responsorium.

salm, psalm (L) 'psalm, song'. Lat. psalm, from Gk.

sallettan 'to play on the harp, sing psalms'. Lat. psallere.

son (L) 'musical sound'. Lat. sonus.

timpane (L) 'tabret, timbrel'. Lat. tympanum, from Gk. tumpanon.

ymen (L) 'hymn'. Lat. hymnus, from Gk. humnos. ymnere (L) 'hymn-book'. Lat. hymnārium.

C (7) FOOD AND COOKING

cōc, cōcere 'cook'. Vulg. Lat. cocus, Lat. coquus. mōrað 'mulberry wine'. Lat. mōrātum. sicera (L), an intoxicating drink. Lat. sicera, from Gk. sikera.

C (8) VESSELS

āmel 'vessel for holy water'. Lat. āmula. ampulle (L) 'vial, flask'. Lat. ampulla. cālic (L) 'cup'. (Cf. earlier celc.) cāul, cāwel 'basket'. Vulg. Lat. cavellum. scutel 'dish', [scuttle]. Lat. scutula.

C (9) Towns, Houses, Building

castel (L) 'village, small town '. Lat. castellum. clauster (L) 'cloister'. (Cf. earlier clūstor.) Lat. claustrum. columne (L) 'pillar'. Lat. columna.

fenester 'window'. Lat. fenestra.

pālent, -ant 'palace'. Vulg. Lat. palantium, Lat. palātium. pālentse, -endse 'palace'. Vulg. Lat. palantia.

plætse, plæce 'open place in a town; street'. Lat. platea.

tempel (L) 'temple'. Lat. templum.

öeater (L) 'theatre'. Lat. theatrum, from Gk. theatron.

C (10) PLANTS

alewe 'aloe'. Lat. aloe.

amigdal (L) 'almond'. Lat. amygdala, from Gk. amugdalē.

aprotane (L), prutane 'southernwood'. Lat. abrotonum, from Gk. abrotonon.

armelu 'wild rue, moly'. Lat. harmāla.

balsam (L) 'balsam, balm'. Lat. balsamum, from Gk. balsamon. berbēne 'verbena'. Lat. verbēna.

bēte 'BEETroot'. Lat. bēta.

bētonice (L) 'wood-betony'. L.Lat. betonica.

calcatrippe, a kind of thorn; 'CALTROP'. L.Lat. calcatrippa.

căric (L) 'dried fig'. L.Lat. carica.

căul, căl, cāwel 'COLE'. Lat. caulis.

cēder (L) 'cedar'. Lat. cedrus, from Gk. kedros.

celeoonie (L) 'celandine'. Lat. celīdonium, from Gk. khelīdonion. centaurie (L) 'centaury'. Lat. centaurēum, from Gk. kentaureion.

coliandre (L) 'coriander'. (Cf. earlier coelendre.) cucumer (L) 'cucumber'. Lat. cucumer-.

cucurbite (L) 'gourd'. (Cf. earlier cyrfet.)

cuneglæsse 'hound's-tongue'. Lat. cynoglossā, from Gk. kunoglāssē.

cunel(1)e (L) 'thyme'. Lat. cunīla.

cypresse (L) 'cypress'. Lat. cyparissus, from Gk. kuparissos.

dräcentse, -conze 'dragon-wort'. L.Lat. dracontea.

fēferfūge 'FEVERFEW'. Lat. febrifugia.

lactuc(e) (L) 'lettuce'. (Cf. earlier leahtroc.)

laur. lawer 'laurel'. Lat. laurus.

lilie 'LILY'. Lat. līlium, from Gk. leirion.

magdala-(trēo) 'almond-tree'. See amigdal, above.

mārubie, -fie 'horehound'. Lat. marrubium, from Gk.

menta 'mint'. (Cf. earlier mint.)

nard (L) 'spikeNARD'. Lat. nardus, probably from an Eastern language.

organe 'marjoram'. Lat. origanum, from Gk. origanon.

palm(a), pælm 'PALM'. Lat. palma.

pānic (L) 'a kind of millet'. Lat. pānīcum.

peonie (L) 'peony'. Lat. paeōnia, from Gk. paiōnia.

persic (L) 'peach'. Lat. persicum = Persian.

perwince (L) 'periwinkle'. Lat. pervinca.

polente (L) 'parched corn'. Lat. polenta.

prūtene. See aprōtane, above.

rose 'rose'. Lat. rosa from Gk. rhodon.

rōsmarīn (L) 'rosemary'. Lat. rōs marīnus.

sāfine (L) 'savine'. Lat. sabina.

salfie (L) 'sage'. Lat. salvia.

saturege (L), sæðerige (not before 800) 'savory'. Lat. saturēia. sigle 'rye'. Lat. secale.

spīca (L) 'spikenard'. Lat. spīca.

stor (L) 'frankincense'. Lat. storax, from Gk. sturax.

sycomer (L) 'sycamore'. Lat. sycomorus, from Gk. sūkomorus. ðimiama (L) 'incense'. Lat. thýmiāma, from Gk. thumiama.

ysope (L) 'hyssop'. Lat. hyssopum, from Gk. hyssopos.

C (11) Animals, Birds, Fishes

aspide (L) 'asp, viper'. Lat. aspidis, from Gk. aspid-. basilisca (L) 'basilisk'. Lat. basiliscus, from Gk. basiliskos.

camel(1) (L) 'camel'. Lat. camelus (Vulg. Lat. camellus), from Gk. kamēlos.

cancer (L) 'crab ; cancer'. Lat. cancer.

delfin (L) 'dolphin'. Lat. delphinus, from Gk. delphinos.

felefor 'bittern'. Lat. porphyrio, from Gk. porphurion.

fenix (L) 'phoenix'. Lat. phoenix, from Gk. phoinix.

lamprēde (L) 'lamprey'. (Cf. earlier lempedu.)

leo (L) 'lion'. Lat. leon-, from Gk. leon-.

lopust (L) 'locust'. Lat. locusta (influenced by O.E. loppestre 'lobster'.

palöer, pandher (L) 'panther'. Lat. from Gk. panthēra.

pard (L) 'leopard'. Lat. pardus, from Gk. pardos, probably from Persian.

pellican (L) 'pelican'. Lat. pelicānus, from Gk. pelekan, an Eastern word.

spilæg (L), a poisonous fly. Lat. spilagius.

tiger (L) 'tiger'. Lat. tigris, from Gk. tigris, ultimately Persian.

turtur. (Cf. earlier turtle.)

ultor 'vulture'. Lat. vultor.

C (12) MEDICAL

ciper-(sealf) 'henna salve'. Lat. cyprus.

flanc (L) 'side'. Vulg. Lat. *flanca, a loan from Gmc.

mamme 'breast'. Lat. mamma.

plaster (L) 'a plaster'. Lat. emplastrum, from Gk. emplastron. rabbian (L) 'to be mad, rage'. Vulg. Lat. rabiare, Lat. rabere.

scröfel (L) 'scrofula'. Lat. scrofula.

sideware 'zedoary'. Lat. zedoārum.

temprian 'to mix, mingle'. Lat. temperāre.

tīriaca 'a medicine'. L.Lat. tiriaca, Lat. thēriacum, from Gk. thēriakon.

ūf (L) 'uvula'. Lat. ūvula.

C (13) Religion

abbod 'abbot' Vulg. Lat. abbādem, Lat. abbāt-em, from Gk. abbudesse 'abbess'. Vulg. Lat. abbādissa, Lat. abbātissa, from Gk.

acolitus (L) 'acolyte'. Lat. acoluthus, from Gk. akolouthos.

alter, altare (L) 'altar'. Lat. altar, altare.

apostata (L) 'apostate'. Lat. apostata, from Gk. apostatēs.

(a)postol 'apostle'. Lat. apostolus, from Gk. apostolos.

ælmesse 'ALMS'. Vulg. Lat. almosina, from Gk. eleēmosuna. bæzere, bæðzere 'baptist'. Lat. baptista, from Gk. baptistēs.

clēric, -oc (L) 'clerk, clergyman'. Lat. clēricus, from Gk. klērikos.

crēda (L) 'CREED'. Lat. crēdō 'I believe'.

crisma (L) 'chrism'. Lat. chrīsma, from Gk. khrīsma.

crismal (L) 'chrisom'. Lat. chrismāle.

crūc (L) 'cross'. Lat. cruc-em.

culpe 'guilt, fault'; vb. culpian 'to be guilty; to cringe'. Lat. culpa.

cumædre 'godmother'. L.Lat. commāter.

cumpæder 'godfather'. Lat. compater.

dēcān 'one in charge of ten monks; a dean '. Lat. decānus.

dēmon (L) 'demon'. Lat. daemon, from Gk. daimon.

diacon (L) 'deacon'. Lat. diaconus, from Gk. diakon.

discipul (L) 'DISCIPLE'. Lat. discipulus.

domne 'lord'. Lat. domine (vocative).

eretic (L) 'heretic'. Lat. haeriticus, from Gk. haieretikos.

fals (L) 'falseness'. Also as adj. of weight or coinage. Lat. falsus.

grād (L) 'step; rank'. Lat. gradus.

idol (L) 'idol'. Lat. idolum, from Gk. eidolon.

letania (L.) 'litany'. Lat., from Gk. litania. mæslere 'sacristan'. Vulg. Lat. mansiōnārius.

mæsse, messe 'MASS'. Romance messa, Lat. missa.

martir (L) 'martyr'. Lat., from Gk. martur.

noctern (L) 'nocturn'. Lat. nocturnus.

non (L) 'ninth hour', [NOON]. Lat. nona (hora).

nonn(e) 'monk'. Lat. nonnus.

offrian 'to offer, sacrifice'. Lat. offerre.

oflæte, -āte 'oblation; sacrificial wafer '. Lat. oblāta.

ore 'evil spirit'. Lat. orcus.

pāpa 'POPE'. Lat. pāpa.

paradis (L) 'PARADISE'. Lat. paradisus, from Gk. paradeisos.

passion (L) 'story of the Passion'. Lat. passionem.

postol. See apostol, above.

prēdician (L) 'preach'. Lat. praedīcāre.

prim (L) 'prime'. Lat. prima (hōra). prior (L) 'prior'. Lat. prior.

sabbat (L) sabbath . Lat. sabbatum, from Heb. sabbāt.

sacerd 'priest'. Lat. sacerdos.

sanct 'saint'. Lat. sanctus.

C (14) Books and Learning

accent (L) 'accent'. Lat. accentus.

ātrum 'black pigment'. Lat. ātramentum.

bærbær 'barbarous'. Lat. barbarus.

biblioðēce (L) 'library'. Lat. bibliothēca, from Gk. bibliothēkē.

brēfian (L) 'to state briefly'. Vulg. Lat. breviāre.

canon (L) 'canon, rule'. Lat. canon, from Gk. kanon.

cāpitol(a) (L) 'chapter'. Lat. capitolum.

carte 'paper, deed'. Lat. c(h)arta, from Gk. khartēs.

circul (L) circle '. Lat. circulus.

cranic 'chronicle'. Lat. chronica, from Gk. khronikon.

dēclīnian (L) 'to decline' (gram.). Lat. dēclīnāre.

(e)pistol 'letter'. Lat. epistula, from Gk. epistola.

grammatic-(cræft) (L) 'grammar'. Lat. (ars) grammatica, from Gk. grammatikē.

graðul 'gradual; Mass-book'. Lat. graduāle.

lātīn (L) 'Latin'. Lat. Latīnus.

mägister (L). (Cf. earlier mægester.)

mēchan(isc) (L) 'mechanical'. Lat. mēchanicus, from Gk. mēkhanikos.

not (L) 'note, mark'. Lat. nota.

notere (L) 'notary'. Lat. notārius.
paper (L) 'paper'. Lat. papyrus, from Gk. papūros.

part (L) 'part'. Lat. part-em.
philosoph (L) 'philosopher'. Lat. philosophus, from Gk. philosophos.

pigment (L). Lat. pigmentum.
pistol. See epistol, above.
prōfian 'to regard, consider'. Lat. probāre.
punct (L) 'point'. Lat. punctum.
scōl 'school'. Lat. schola, from Gk. skholē.
sott 'fool'. Vulg. Lat. sottus 'fool', perhaps from Gmc.
studdian 'to see to, take care of'. Lat. studēre.
tītol (L) 'title, superscription'. Lat. tītulus.
trāmet (L) 'page'. Lat. trāmit-is.
tropere (L) 'service-book'. Lat. tropārium.

C (15) CALENDAR AND ASTRONOMY

bises (L) 'leap-year'. Lat. bissextus.

calend (L) 'month'. Lat. calendae 'calends'. The use of the word in the sense of 'month' is found in Roman poets, e.g. Ovid, Martial.

comēta (L) 'comet'. Lat. comēta, from Gk. komēta. epact (L) 'epact'. Lat. epactae, from Gk. epaktai. termen (L) 'fixed date'. Lat. terminus.

C (16) MISCELLANEOUS

centaur (L) 'centaur'. Lat. centaurus, from Gk. kentauros. crōc(ed) (L) 'yellow'. Lat. croc-us. flōr(isè) (L) 'floral'. Lat. flōridus. gigant 'giant'. Lat. from Gk. gigant-, gigas. tonian 'to thunder'. Lat. tonārē.

APPENDIX B

NOTE ON THE PHONOLOGY OF LATIN LOAN-WORDS IN OLD ENGLISH

In loan-words from Latin, it must be remembered, the stress was often shifted in Old English to conform to the English habit of stressing the stem syllable; thus Lat. tribūtum becomes trifot, secūrus becomes sicor, offérre becomes óffrian, and so on. In some cases, of course, the Latin already had the stress on the stem (e.g. fefer, Lat. febris; pāpa, Lat. pāpa; mealwe, Lat. malva, etc.).

Latin words, like other loan-words, were adopted with each sound represented by the nearest corresponding sound in English or Germanic when they were borrowed in the spoken language. Most of these correspondences are quite straightforward.

Lat. a was adopted as a, and in words borrowed sufficiently early (in the first, or even in the second period) they underwent the normal development of Gmc. a in English:—

- (i) it appears as α or o before a nasal: candel, condel; ancor, oncor:
- (ii) it became x, which normally remained: txfel, pxgel, fxcele; but:—
- (iii) it was retracted to a before a back vowel: draca, gabote;
- (iv) it was fractured to ea before h or r + consonant: leahtroc, earca, cearrage;
- (v) it was either fractured to ea or retracted to a (according to dialect) before l + consonant: sealm, salm; mealwe, malwe;
- (vi) it was diphthongized to ea in some dialects after c, sc: ceaster, ceafor-tūn, sceamol;
- (vii) it was raised to e when followed by i: $\dot{c}el\dot{c}$, $\dot{c}eren$ (from Vulg. Lat. *carīn-).

In words borrowed after the period when a became x, but before the period of *i*-mutation, a became x before i: cxfester, cxlic (a reborrowing).

Later loans did not undergo these changes, but kept a: fals, carte, plaster, castel, cancer.

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Latin i remained in the earlier loan-words: pipor, pise, disc,

insiale, biscop, sinoð.

In later loan-words this vowel was borrowed as e, partly perhaps because it had been lowered slightly in Vulg. Lat. and Romance, partly because in Old English the Gmc. e had become tense: seglian, segn, cest, peru, senoò.

The latest loans from Latin again had i, being mostly from

Classical Latin, in learned loans: citere, ciper, discipul.

Latin u remained in the earliest loans: fullere, purpur, turl,

must; before i this was fronted to y: pylwe, bytt, cyrfet.

In later words (again partly on account of a Vulg. Lat. change) u appears as o: box, copp, torr. But in late loans from Classical Latin u is found again: punct, scutel, pumic.

Latin e remains in Old English apart from certain combinative

changes: fefor, sester; but

(1) before a following i, e becomes i: ciris, pilce, pirie

(from *cerisia, *pelice, *peria);

- (ii) before a nasal + another cons., e appears as i, either because they were borrowed early enough to share in this Gmc. sound-change, or through sound-substitution (O.E. not possessing the group e + nasal + cons.): minte, timple, gimm, binn. But late loans have e: templ, centur.
- (iii) Vulg. Lat. e shortened from Lat. \bar{e} in words where it preceded the chief accent (e.g. $sec\bar{u}rus$, from Lat. $s\bar{e}c\bar{u}rus$, $den\bar{a}rius$ from Lat. $d\bar{e}n\bar{a}rius$) becomes O.E. i, since it was a tense vowel, and thus approximated more to O.E. or Gmc. i than to e: sicor, dinor.

(iv) In some later loans, Vulg. Lat. e appears to have been

borrowed as x: pxrl, nxpte.

Lat. o commonly appears as $o: porr, post, socc, apostol, offrian, rose, ostre, mortere; solor, morað (the last two from Lat. <math>\bar{o}$ shortened in Vulg. Lat.); but

(i) Before nasal + cons. o becomes u: pund, nunne, punt,

munt, except in the latest loan-words, such as domne.

(ii) When followed by i, j, in the next syllable, o becomes u, later y by i-mutation: mylen (from *molina), mynet (from *munit-, Lat. monēta), cycene (*cocina, Lat. coquīna), spynge (*spongia).

Latin \bar{a} appears in Old English as \bar{z} , if borrowed before the period in which West Gmc. \bar{a} became O.E. $str\bar{z}t$, $n\bar{z}p$ (non-West Saxon $str\bar{z}t$, $n\bar{e}p$). Lat. $c\bar{a}seus$ became first $*k\bar{z}sj$ -, then $*c\bar{z}sj$ -, then, through the West Saxon diphthongization after c, $*c\bar{e}asi$, and finally by i-mutation $c\bar{e}se$. In non-West Saxon, by the

ordinary change of \bar{x} to \bar{e} it becomes $c\bar{e}se$. In later loan-words Latin \bar{a} remains: $p\bar{a}pa$, $p\bar{a}l$.

Latin $\bar{\imath}$ remains in Old English whatever the date of borrowing :

prīm, pīn, pīpe, scrīn, wīn, fīc.

Latin \bar{u} remains in Old English: $m\bar{u}r$, $r\bar{u}de$, $cl\bar{u}stor$, $pl\bar{u}me$, bemūtian. But when followed by i it becomes \bar{y} : $pl\bar{y}me$ (from

plūmj-).

Latin \bar{e} is represented in O.E. by $\bar{\imath}$; the Vulgar Latin \bar{e} must have been a tense \bar{e} , approximating more nearly to the English $\bar{\imath}$ than to the (rare) O.E. \bar{e} : $s\bar{\imath}de$, $c\bar{\imath}iroc$, $t\bar{\imath}jde$. In late learned words \bar{e} remains: $cr\bar{e}do$, $biblioth\bar{e}ce$, $cl\bar{e}roc$ (reborrowing). The same applies to Vulg. Lat. \bar{e} from Lat. oe or $\bar{e}n(s)$: $p\bar{\imath}n$ (Lat. poena), $m\bar{\imath}se$ ($m\bar{\imath}se$; Lat. $m\bar{e}nsa$), $p\bar{\imath}slc$; cf. the late $f\bar{e}nix$ (Lat. phoenix).

Latin ō remains in Old English: nōn, mōr-(bēam). When

followed by i or j, \bar{o} is fronted to \bar{a} , later \bar{e} : glesan.

There are some special rules of quantity which have to be observed with regard to the 'learned' loan-words from Latin in Old English. If the position of the chief stress remains the same in English as in Latin, a short vowel remains short, in a closed syllable (e.g. sanct, circul); but if the stressed vowel was in an open syllable in Latin, it was pronounced in the school-Latin of the early Middle Ages with a long vowel if it stood in the penultimate syllable, with a short vowel if it stood in the antepenultimate, whatever the quantity may have been in classical Latin, and this process was followed in Old English: Lat. crēdō, coquus, sonus, nōna, schola: O.E. crēda, cōc, sōn, nōn, schōl; but Lat. fībula, būtyrum, līlie, clēricus, calicem, cithara: O.E. fifele, butere, lilie, cleric, calic, citere.

If the position of the accent was shifted in Old English to the first syllable, a short vowel in this syllable became long if the syllable was open; Lat. magister, sacerdos, columna: O.E.

māgister, sācerdos, columne.

There are not very many words in Old English in which the vowels are derived from Lat. diphthongs. Lat. ae (borrowed in the period before Gmc. ai became O.E. ā) became ā: Lat. caesar, O.E. cāsere. Lat. au, together with Gmc. au, became O.E. ēa: Lat. caucus, O.E. cēac; Lat. caupō, O.E. cēap; but later 'learned' words retain the au, or develop this to āwe: Lat. caulis, O.E. caul, cāwel; Lat. laurus, O.E. lāwer.

In regard to the Latin consonants the chief points to be observed have to do with certain developments in Gallo-Roman and Romance. Latin intervocalic p became b, and t became d, and later still, in Romance, these became respectively b and d.

In the earliest loan-words (and in late loans from classical Latin) the p and t are retained: copor, $n\bar{e}p$, pipor; mynet, $str\bar{e}t$ butere; but later words show the voiced form of the consonants, (for b, which did not exist in O.E. between vowels, O.E. used \bar{b} , written f, as in the still later loans from Romance, which are indistinguishable in this respect from loans of the Gallo-Roman date): cefl Lat. capulus, cefester (Lat. capistrum); abbod (Lat. $abb\bar{a}tem$), eced (Lat. $ac\bar{e}tum$), $s\bar{s}de$ (Lat. $s\bar{e}ta$), byden (Lat. butina), or still later, from Romance: $fi\delta ele$ (L.Lat. vitula), $mora\delta$ (Lat. $m\bar{o}r\bar{a}tum$).

Lat. intervocalic b became b in Vulg. Lat., and this remains in O.E., written f: fifele (Lat. fibula), tæft (Lat. tabula), trifot

(Lat. tributum), fefor (Lat. febris).

Finally we must note a distinction between the consonants used at different periods of Old English to represent Lat. c(k). Early loans with this consonant have the same development as Gmc k in O.E., i.e. c(k) becomes c before front vowels (i, e, x) but remains otherwise: c est, c easter, c etel, d price, d etc. But later loans keep the d (d expe, d easter), with the exception of words borrowed from Romance after about 600, at which time Lat. d had become d before d e in Romance, and is represented by this group in O.E.: d entre d earlier d earlier

APPENDIX C

SCANDINAVIAN VOWELS IN OLD AND MIDDLE ENGLISH

Several of the Old Norse vowels existed already in Old English (though not necessarily in cognate words), and these shared the normal development of the O.E. vowels in Middle English. Other O.N. vowels and diphthongs, however, were not found in O.E.; these usually became assimilated to the nearest corresponding native form.

In the following list the nearest corresponding etymological form in O.E. is given after the O.N. vowel, and then the form in which the latter appears in Old or Middle English.

SHORT VOWELS

O.N. a (O.E. &, etc.) remains as a: awe, anger, carl, kasten, hap. O.N. e (O.E. e, etc.) remains as e: geten, nevnen, brennen; so also e for i-mutation of a: egg, leg, ketel.

O.N. i (O.E. i) remains as i: skin, grip, hitten, ill, prift.

O.N. o (O.E. o) remains as o: pogh, scot, odd, score.

O.N. u (O.E. u) remains as u: bule, ugli, sum, skulle.

O.N. y, through i-mutation of u (O.E. y) develops like O.E. y, mostly to i, since most of the Scand. loans appear in the northeast: flutten, flitten; brunie, brinie.

O.N. y, through u-mutation of i (O.E. i), develops as the

preceding vowel: big, biggen, sister.

O.N. ϱ , through u-mutation of a (O.E. x, etc.), usually becomes a: lagu (O.N. leg), rag (O.N. regg).

SHORT DIPHTHONGS

O.N. ia, io (O.E. e, eo) appear in M.E. as e: sterne (O.N. stiarna), skerre (O.N. skiarr), ket (O.N. kiot).

LONG VOWELS

- O.N. \bar{a} (O.E. \bar{e}) appears as \bar{a} in O.E., and as \bar{a} , $\bar{\rho}$ in M.E. : $l\bar{a}h$, $l\bar{o}h$; $w\bar{a}re$, $w\bar{o}re$; $b\bar{a}pe$, $b\bar{o}pe$.
 - O.N. ē: M.E. ē: sēr.
 - O.N. $\bar{\imath}$ (O.E. $\bar{\imath}$) remained as $\bar{\imath}$: $n\bar{\imath}\delta ing$, $t\bar{\imath}\delta ende$, priven.

O.N. \bar{o} (O.E. \bar{o}) remained as \bar{o} : $b\bar{o}nde$, $b\bar{l}ome$, $b\bar{o}n$, $b\bar{o}pe$.

O.N. \bar{u} (O.E. \bar{u}) remained as \bar{u} : droupen, boun.

O.N. æ becomes ē: gēten, skēr.

O.N. ø becomes è: slezmen, semen.

O.N. \bar{y} develops like O.E. \bar{y} : $b\bar{\imath}$, $f\bar{\imath}le$, $m\bar{\imath}re$, $sk\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}nen$.

LONG DIPHTHONGS

O.N. ei (O.E. ā) remains as ei: swein, beisk, beiten, heil, greipen. Pr. O.N. ou, O.N. au (O.E. ēa) appears as ou, au, ō: coupen, goulen, lous; laus, gaulen; lopen, windoge. These differences

reflect partly distinctions in Scandinavian dialects, partly different periods of borrowing, but their distribution in English

words is not clear.

O.N. iu, io (O.E. ēo) became ēo and developed like the same diphthong in native words, usually to \bar{e} : $sk\bar{e}t$, $m\bar{e}k$.

O.N. øy (O.E. ē, W.S. īe) usually became ei: beisten, keiren.

APPENDIX D

NOTES ON THE PHONOLOGY OF FRENCH LOAN-WORDS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

ACCENT

The chief change in French loan-words adopted in Middle English was the shifting in the position of the accent to the stemsyllable in those words where French had placed it on the final syllable and not on the stem, e.g. hónour, pítē, énvie, vírtu, in place of honóur, píté, envie, virtú. The change was not at first universal, the French accent being retained for some time by bilingual speakers, and even in the fifteenth century poets varied between the English and the French mode of accentuation.

In the case of verbs with prefixes (such as recorden, commanden, avauncen), the accent follows the system of accentuation of native verbs with this formation (such as artsen, āwāken, forzīven).

QUANTITY

(1) Old French a, e, o appear as long vowels in dissyllabic words in which the first syllable is open, or if there are two medial consonants both belonging to the second syllable, and also in trisyllabic words having the accent on the penultimate: fāme, dāme, rōbe, cōte, appēren; hāste, fēste, cōste; tāble, fēble, nōble; brōche, āge, plāce (ts, later s). With the accent shifted in English: bācun, bāsin, māson, lēver, trēsour, pōstern.

(2) O.Fr. i, u, in the same position, appear as long vowels in English if the position of the accent remains the same as in French: bīble, desīren, attīren, houre, spouse, cīdre, poudre,

jousten.

If, however, the accent is shifted from the last to the penultimate syllable, the French i is treated like English i in open syllables, that is, it remains i in some dialects, and becomes \bar{e} in others, especially in the north and east, giving alternative forms in M.E.: $cit\bar{e}$, $c\bar{e}t\bar{e}$; prisoun, $pr\bar{e}soun$; mirour, $m\bar{e}rour$, etc.

(3) Lengthening seems to take place before r + consonant, e.g. art, force, source, which, with other words, sometimes appear

to have a long vowel; but this lengthening is not carried out

consistently.

Note.—(i) A number of words retain a short vowel in M.E. where a long vowel might be expected: maner, palais, profit, forest, etc. It has been suggested that these depend on a class-dialect, perhaps an upper-class pronunciation influenced by the original French, and used by bilingual speakers.

(ii) Verbs sometimes retain a short vowel in the conditions indicated above (under 1 and 2), e.g. passe, cacche; perhaps the influence of trisyllabic inflected forms in English (e.g. passede) kept the vowel short, since English did not pronounce long

vowels in this position.

QUALITY

French a. (A) (i) Short in closed syllables: barre, part, large hardi. Occasionally long before r + consonant, as shown by such spellings as aart.

(ii) Long before a single final consonant: debāt, bās, pās, etc.

(iii) Long in open syllables (see above, under Quantity): dāme, escāpe, āble, tāste, plāce, āge, bāsin, sāvour, nātur, nātioun (pronounced as dissyllable).

(B) (i) Before a nasal, O.Fr. a appears as au in Anglo-Norman (C.Fr. \tilde{a}) from the early thirteenth century, and this passes into

M.E.: chaunce, daunce, graunten, laumpe.

(ii) This au before mb, $nd\check{z}$, is monophthongized to \bar{a} : $str\bar{a}nge$, $d\bar{a}nger$, $ch\bar{a}mbre$.

French e. (i) Short in closed syllables: lettre, serven, certain, servaunt, tempest, gentil, (en)tent. (Occasionally long before r + cons.)

(ii) Long in open syllables, \bar{e} from Fr. e, \bar{e} from Fr. \bar{e} : $ap\bar{e}len$, $b\bar{e}ste$, $pr\bar{e}chen$; $\bar{a}p\bar{e}ren$, $f\bar{e}re$, $degr\bar{e}$.

(iii) Long before a single final consonant: bēk 'beak'.

Note.—(i) The French e was apparently very tense, as it sometimes appears as $\bar{\imath}$ in M.E.; thus M.E. has both frere and frire

(Mod. Eng. friar), quer and quir (Mod. Eng. choir).

(ii) A.N. retains the distinction between O.Fr. en + cons. and an + cons., whereas C.Fr. levels both under \tilde{a} ; an occasional C.Fr. form (with M.E. am, an, from \bar{a}) appears in later M.E., e.g. amperour.

French i. (A) When the accent remains: (i) Short in closed

syllables: simple, prince.

(ii) Long in open syllables: arrīven, dīnen, crīen; bīble, vīce. (But short before ch: riche.)

(B) When the accent is shifted: (i) Short in closed syllables.

(ii) Short also in open syllables, except in certain dialects, especially of the north and east, where it becomes \bar{e} : $pit\bar{e}$, $riv\bar{e}r$, diner; $p\bar{e}t\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}ver$, $d\bar{e}ner$.

French o. Whether the accent is shifted or not: (i) Short in closed syllables (except occasionally before r + cons.): cofre, propre, cors (but sometimes coors, etc.).

propre, cors (but sometimes coors, etc.)

(ii) Long in open syllables: rōbe, cōte, clōsen, nōble, rōsten, apprōchen, ōdour.

(iv) Long before single final consonant: clos, gros, stor.

(v) Long and tense before or after lip-consonants: povre, moven, proven, fol, bote.

moven, proven, joi, voie.

French u. (A) When the French accent remains: (i) Either long or short in closed syllables: scurge, scourge; disturben, tourben; sours; but

(ii) Usually long before nasal + consonant (where A.-N. u = C.Fr. o): count, mount, fountain, pouncen, confound, etc., but numbre, spunge, plungen, and a few others, are short.

(iii) Long before a single final consonant.

(iv) Long in open syllables: route, houre, vowe, pouche, double, couple. (But short sometimes before cons. +l: duble, cuple, truble.)

(B) When the accent is shifted: Short: super, mutoun.

French \ddot{u} . (A) When the accent remains: (i) Short in closed syllables: $j\ddot{u}ggen$, $j\ddot{u}stice$. This vowel remains \ddot{u} in those areas in which O.E. y was retained (written u); both were retracted to u by the fifteenth century. In those areas in which O.E. y had been unrounded, Fr. \ddot{u} was probably retracted earlier (perhaps even at the time of adoption, in which case it may be regarded as an example of sound-substitution rather than sound-change).

(ii) Long in open syllables: $\ddot{u}se$, $r\ddot{u}de$, $s\ddot{u}re$; also before single final consonant: $p\ddot{u}r$, $d\ddot{u}k$. The vowel remained \ddot{u} in those areas in which O.E. \ddot{y} had been retained. Elsewhere it may have been quite early diphthongized to $\bar{e}u$, later iu, as it was eventually everywhere (together with O.E. \ddot{y}). In Late M.E. it was certainly

levelled under iu from M.E. ēu, ēu.

(B) When the accent is shifted: Usually short in both closed and open syllables; but long occasionally in open syllables; cf. stüdy, dücat, düchess, with hümour, cürate, müsic (the modern forms of which show length in M.E.)

French ai. This diphthong was in process of being monophthongized in Norman-French at the time of the Norman invasion

of England; therefore M.E. has forms with ai and with e. The diphthong remained longest (and is most frequent in loanwords in English) before l, m, or n, when final, and before a vowel: grain, plain, saint, remainen, claimen; rai, gai; paien, assaien. Cf. $p\bar{e}s$ (earlier pais), $\bar{e}se$ (earlier aise), $r\bar{e}sun$ (earlier raisun), $s\bar{e}sen$, $s\bar{e}sun$, $p\bar{e}sun$, $\bar{e}gle$, $g\bar{e}se$ (earlier glaive). A few words have ai pretty regularly in M.E.: waite, plaice, caitiff, aide, traitre. French ai includes a new ai (already developed at the time of the Conquest) from a before li, ni, the i [j] fronting the consonant and then disappearing: tailor, failen, availen, Spaine, etc.

French ei. This diphthong was levelled under ai in Anglo-Norman, remaining usually in M.E. before l, n, or m, when final, or before a vowel; but otherwise appearing in M.E. as \bar{e} : $rec\bar{e}t$, $encr\bar{e}sen$; preie (praie), obeien; air, faire, peine. In Central French, Old French ei became ei in the twelfth century (later ei, and by the sixteenth century ei, ei). A few Central French words with ei from this source were adopted in M.E. during the

fourteenth century: esploit, poise, royal, etc.

French ϱi . This diphthong occurred in both A.-N. and C.Fr.

It remained in M.E.: noise, joie, choice, cloistre.

French oi seems to have become ui in A.-N., and $\bar{o}i$ in C.Fr. by the twelfth century. M.E. has sometimes oi and sometimes ui; some of the spellings with oi may be really ui forms (o being a common spelling for u), but some of them are almost certainly non-Norman forms: puint, puison, juinen, builen; cf. point, join, voice, moist, broil, toil, etc.

French üi. This diphthong was pronounced in A.-N. either as a rising or as a falling diphthong. The latter, which was the commoner, was monophthongized in A.-N. and followed the same lines of development in M.E. as the vowel ü, i.e. remained or became eu: fruit, destruien, annuien, pü 'pew'. The rising diphthong appeared chiefly after back consonants, and became

wi in M.E.: quiver, squirrel (O.Fr. cuiver, escuireuil).

French ie. This (rising) diphthong was monophthongized in A.-N. to ē, and was borrowed as ē in M.E.: chēre, fērs, relēf, chēf, fēvre, nēce. The ie-spelling which is found in many of these words to-day (chief, relief, fierce, etc.) reflects the influence of French scribes who followed the practice of dialects in which monophthongization did not take place. It is rare before the fifteenth century.

French ue. This (falling) diphthong was monophthongized in A.-N. to \overline{x} , and was borrowed in this form in M.E. It was

levelled under the native \bar{e} which had developed from O.E. $\bar{e}o$, and with this was unrounded to \bar{e} in most dialects, but preserved as a rounded vowel for a considerable period (probably until Late M.E.) in the west. The spelling varies between eo, oe, and e (occasionally u in the west): poeple, people, peple; preoven, preven; boef, bef.

French au, ou, eu. These diphthongs arose in O.Fr. through the vocalization of l before a consonant, e.g. auter (from alter), sauve (from salve), or (more rarely) through the vocalization of v, e.g. ewer (= euer) from earlier ev- (Lat. aqu-). The diphthongs remained in M.E.: faut, assaut, sauf, faucoun, souden, peutre 'pewter'. But before lip-consonants in the early fourteenth century, the diphthongs were monophthongized through the loss of the u, and the remaining vowel was lengthened: $s\bar{a}f$, $b\bar{a}me$, $s\bar{a}moun$. Later forms with al, ol, in place of the au, ou, either in pronunciation or in spelling, are due to Latin influence on English or to reborrowing from a Latinized form in French: fault, falcon, solder.

French uei. This triphthong usually became the diphthong üi in French dialects, and as this diphthong was treated in English as üi from other sources. (See above.)

French *ieu*. This became monophthongized in Norman-French to iu, and was eventually levelled in English under the iu from eu (Fr. \bar{u} or English $\bar{e}u$).

French eau. This was reduced to eu in A.-N., and in M.E. is finally levelled under eu: beauty, beuty. Before a lip-consonant or \check{s} , $t\check{s}$, the diphthong is monophthongized to \bar{e} : $B\bar{e}champ$, from Beuchamp, $B\bar{e}voir$, from Beuvoir, etc. (Hence Mod. Eng. $[\bar{\imath}]$ in such words, where the spelling is eau, or ea.)

The points of chief interest in the adoption of French consonants in English are concerned with differences in the French dialects, especially those which differentiate the northern French dialects from those spoken farther south. The following are the most important distinctions between Norman-French and Central French which are reflected in the Middle English loan-words:—

(i) N.-F. w: C.Fr. g (from Gmc. w). M.E. werre, waste, waite, warisoun, wicket: garisoun, $g\bar{\imath}le$, gerdoun, gernement, etc. The g-forms appear chiefly in and after the fourteenth century.

(ii) N.-F. and Picard k before a: C.Fr. ch. (But the ch-type developed also in part of Normandy, and so some of the earlier ch-forms may be from this area, and are not necessarily Central French.) M.E. casten 'chasten', cacchen, caritep, caudron, catel,

carpenter, market: chasten, chācen, charite, chaudron, chatel, chair, chēf, etc.

(iii) N.-F. and Picard g: C.Fr. j [$d\check{z}$]. M.E. garden, gaol:

joy, jest, jail, etc.

(iv) N.-F. and Picard ch [tš]: C.Fr. ts (later s). M.E. chisel, chīme, cherry, cacchen, perche, winche: wince, chace, perce, celle, citē, etc.

(v) E.N.-F. and Picard š: C.Fr. s. M.E. punishe, norishe,

anquish, cuisshin: rejoice.

Another special French development which affected loan-words in English was the disappearance of Fr. p (earlier t) and d (earlier d) between vowels and finally after a vowel. These consonants remained longer in Anglo-Norman than elsewhere, and appear in some earlier borrowings, e.g. caritep (later carite), plentep (later plente). See p. 108 for further examples.

Latin initial h disappeared in Vulg. Lat., and consequently most of the French loans in M.E. had no initial h, except in the spelling, where it was influenced by classical Latin. In French loan-words from Gmc., however, at least such as were borrowed after the loss of Vulg. Lat. h-, the initial h remained, and was adopted in

M.E.: haste, heraud, hardy, etc.

The French development of s+ consonant is reflected in Middle English. In the eleventh century O.Fr. s disappeared before voiced consonants, and is therefore not present even in the earliest English loans: $d\bar{\imath}$ nen, $m\bar{a}$ le, fant $\bar{\imath}$ ne. (Before l and n early A.-N. has d, perhaps one stage in the development of s before its disappearance, and this is found in one or two English words, e.g. medle, O.Fr. mesler.)

O.Fr. final n becomes m by dissimilation after a point consonant: venim (O.Fr. venin), velim (O.Fr. velin), ransum (O.Fr.

ransun), pilegrim (O.Fr. pilegrin).

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